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ABSTRACT

These four issues of "The Journal of Staff, Program, and Organization Development" contain the following articles: "Faculty Developers: Are They Giving Away the X-Rays?" by Neil D. Fleming; "Alliances for Change: A Procedure for Improving Teaching through Conversations with Learners and Partnerships with Colleagues," by Richard G. Tiberius, and others; "Beyond Boxes: A More Positive and Productive Way of Understanding People," by Joyce G. Sibley; "An Integrated Systems Approach in Support of Institutional Effectivenss: The Roles of Staff & Organization Development and Institutional Research," by Margaret Gratton and Dan Walleri; "Appraisal of Faculty: Designing a System from Scratch," by Marshal Olp, and others; "Paid Professional Leaves: Policies and Practices in Texas Community Colleges" (Enrique Solis; and others); "The Department Chairperson: The Confessions of a Researcher Turned Practitioner," by John P. Murray; "Teaching Assistant Training for General Education in a State University: A Department Case Study," by Carol Olson and Larry Perkins; "Making Committees Work: Shared Power in the College Governance Structure," by William A. Wojciechowski and David Lemire; "A Call to Action in a Nation Still at Risk," by Charles H. Beard; "Setting the Stage: Introducing the Teaching Portfolio Concept to One's Campus," by James A. Eison; "Developing, Implementing, and Assessing a Great Teachers Short Course for Faculty Development," by James Paradiso; "Helping TAs (Teacher Assistants) To Help Themselves: A Model Training System Using a Peer TA," by Elaine Gordon and John Hoddinott; "REFRAME: A Model for Promoting Faculty/Staff Vitality and Excellence," by Maxine C. Mott; "New Relationships between Universities, Community Colleges, and Technical Colleges," by Hugh L. Thompson; "Using Computers Interactively To Overcome Resistance to Learning about Theory," by Thomas J. Keefe and John H. Newman; "Systematic Instruction vs. Lecture," by Glenn R. Johnson, and others; "Enhancing Teacher Efficacy in College Faculty," by Regina Miller, and others; "Organizational Triple-Teaming To Improve Learning," by Robert L. Cole, and others; "Global Issues Pedagogy," by Nasrin Shahinpoor and Bernard Matt; and "A Low Cost and High Impact Model for Development and Support of New Faculty," by Jane Jakoubek. Book reviews are included in all issues. (KP)

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Karron G. Lewis, Ed.

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The JOURNAL of STAFF, PROGRAM, & ORGANIZATION DEVELOPMENT

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Reporting the latest in professional development activities at the 2-year college, 4-year college, and university levels.

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By Neil D. Fleming

Faculty Developers: Are They Giving Away the X-Rays?

The interpretation of the results of student evaluations is a learned skill for faculty developers that cannot be presumed in other faculty. The same point can be made about observing classes, providing peer feedback and contributing to decision making for promotion and tenure. Many faculty developers avoid these professional responsibilities in the mistaken belief that other faculty possess these faculty development skills.

THE MEDICAL profession holds close certain techniques and interpretative skills. Patients are not asked to make sense of their scans or x-rays. Commonly, the information is held in strict confidence away from the client's eyes and it is often written in a language or format which works against the understanding of the person most interested in it. In other professions the interpretation of evidence, symptoms, words, or values provides a key skill. The practitioners may be variously skilled at conveying professional matters to the patients or clients but they would normally not "hand over the X-rays" and allow their clients to find their interpretation. In contrast, faculty developers seem to have opted out of interpretations peculiar to their discipline.

Is Faculty Development a Profession Within Teaching?

It could be argued that faculty developers do not have a separate discipline but, that they draw on many other disciplines—education, sociology, psychology, information systems and computer science. If that is the case, the client is as knowledgeable about the profession as is the faculty developer and it is therefore safe to divulge specialist information to these "outsiders." In such a circumstance we do not have a separate profession but a collage of colleagues. That is not the issue that is addressed here. Faculty developers are colleagues but they do have a separate body of knowledge and experience. It is from that body that

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they gain their expertise—expertise that is often unacknowledged, or worse, downgraded by the practitioners themselves. How do they do this?

When they practice or profess their discipline they tend to "give away" the data which is theirs to interpret and inconsistencies and difficulties are unnecessarily released. The advice and data flowing from their practice is often handed to the teacher-colleague as raw data without any perusal or interpretative comment. This reluctance to act on specialist information will be examined in the four cases which follow.

Case One: Student Evaluations of Teaching

This is a common activity in faculty development. There is a very wide body of literature and a mass of interpretative statements. Faculty developers know a great deal about the validity of evaluations. There are skills attached to each stage of the procedure, beginning with the administration of the test instruments. There is a lively debate in the professional journals read by faculty developers about the interpretation of the information which flows from a simple procedure. Faculty developers are keen to spot abnormalities (bias) in the student information which might invalidate the evaluation. New and better test questions are designed and the dimensions of teaching are regularly scrutinised for completeness. Faculty developers are knowledgeable about when to use student evaluations, the importance of summative and normative differences, the use of norm-based scales and the differences between questions about content and presentation. Where the evidence from the student evaluations indicates that teaching is poor, the faculty developer can draw on a wide body of research findings to prescribe remedies or suggestions for the inadequacies or deficiencies. Yet, with all this expertise and specialism we most frequently give the x-rays to the client by mailing the results direct.

The result is misinformed clients. A common error is for excellent teachers to disbelieve data, or focus on a few negatives and seek to make major changes to their style when none are necessary. Conversely, teachers who receive data which indicate poor teaching tend to misread the information and bolster their self esteem, criticize the process or raise those myths about student evaluations which are the shelter for the inadequate teacher and the skeptic.

Case Two: Contributing to Promotion and Tenure Decisions

Faculty developers are often reluctant to contribute to the professional judgments about promotion and tenure. As colleagues in the profession of teaching they regard themselves as too close to their clients to be objective. Many would see any contribution as threatening the relationship they are building with faculty. This is difficult but it hinges again on the degree to which faculty development is a discipline in its own right or merely a combination of other disciplines. It may also depend on the way in which information is provided. If faculty developers are perceived to be an integral part of the administration there is less likelihood that they will develop a professional rapport with their academic clients. Instead they may lose their valuable neutrality and be seen as collectors of information for the decision makers.

However, another relationship could be built. It would be based on the professional ideas of objectivity and service. Working with and alongside faculty in their professional development it is possible for the faculty developer to be regarded as the only person who can reliably interpret the information which is gathered by teachers. In such a relationship it is possible to provide expert consultancy as a service to the decision makers and still maintain a professional and supportive relationship with faculty colleagues. There is another and more positive role for such an expert and that is as the coach and mentor of those who are applicants for advancement or tenure. Here the faculty developers can be the persons who advise the applicant about the interpretation of information gathered by them in the teaching process. They could run seminars or workshops on the compilation or presentation of teaching portfolios or they could provide individual consultations to help faculty with their cases. These practices are thoroughly consistent with a professional role and do not threaten their neutrality.

Case Three: Contributing to Discussions about Quality

The 1990s will be a decade which focuses on quality. Out of the accountability decade of the '80s will flow a need to measure and assure quality to the stakeholders in education. One contribution that faculty developers might make to this discussion is informed comment about the quality of teaching. Again there is a body of literature which, to read critically, requires a professionally trained eye. There are judgments to be made about the best ways to measure quality and the acceptable ways to report to the stakeholders to assure them that quality in teaching is or isn't present. When approached by a vice chancellor, president or principal seeking assistance, many faculty developers avoid the issue. Yet there is ample evidence that if these decisions are left to non-professionals the debate contains little more than subjective and personal viewpoints. Some colleagues are quick to point out that teaching is not measurable and research is. They may do so to provide a shield around a lackluster performance or because of ignorance about the research findings on teaching and quality.

We may not be able to measure

teaching but faculty developers have an excellent set of indicators about good teaching. These indicators may not be suited to a finite scale but their presence or absence is sufficient to assert that quality teaching is or is not present. The conditions in which quality teaching will thrive are well known and faculty developers can make a valuable contribution to the ensuing debate about quality assurance in teaching.

As an aside, they can also reduce the undue reverence for the measurement of research which is often placed in antithesis to teaching. Faculty developers can draw on a wide range of findings which query the accuracy of research "measurements" using citations and numbers of refereed papers. As with teaching, we would do well to focus discussion on *indicators* of quality in research rather than measures of quality.

Case Four: Peers and Observations

It is not uncommon to read of the failure of a peer support scheme especially where some part of the relationship is based on observation of a colleague's teaching. This is another example where faculty developers have, too readily, assumed a professional competence in their colleagues which is not present. Setting a climate where peer observation of teaching is an important element is an excellent initiative for a faculty developer but professional contact should be maintained with the process and not given away. Observing teaching and learning is a skill. Training in observation requires a much longer input than some two or three-day course. It has many of the sub-skills of diagnosis and communication and is not automatically found in all teachers. Many are not perceptive about their teaching let alone the teaching of others. Some are biased by the "me-too" approach which assumes that to be successful, other colleagues must teach as they do.

Faculty developers often have both a research and a practitioner base on which the skill of observing can be founded. To expect such depth in others is naive and it is little wonder that many peer support schemes fail because of the absence of informed professional comment on teaching sessions. It is not only the observation of teaching which is a skilled and professional task, it is the more important interpretation of the observations and the recommendations for change which might flow from that collegial contact. To entrust that collection of skills to another person merely because they also teach is neither helpful nor professional.

The Prescription

Faculty developers are too modest. They should express their professionalism and profess it. They have access to a very wide body of literature which is not widely read by other colleagues. They have skills in interpreting quality in teaching through such things as student evaluations, teaching portfolios and peer observation. Yet, they frequently place the results of student evaluations in an envelope and mail it to a colleague for an uninformed self interpretation. They expect every teacher to add faculty development as an additional discipline to their repertoire. They should accompany the information for a professional consultation about the results or, if that is not possible, provide a detailed (non numerical) written analysis of its implications.

Faculty developers are sometimes guilty of setting up peer observation systems or allowing them to develop when they have in-built inadequacies. The very skills needed for professional support are not present. They should actively criticize judgments made by those who are untrained in observation and interpretation skills. As a positive step they should only put in place systems which have been preceded by adequate training and experience and that means more than a few days learning to fill in a classroom behavior check list.

They often shy away from being the professional commentators on quality. They should be offering their services to the administrators as the skilled interpreters of quality. They have a valuable role as the gatherers of data and commentators on the indicators of quality in teaching.

Faculty developers should take back the x-rays and seek ways to provide a professional service to their colleagues which acknowledges their expertise, scholarship and training. They assume too much if they expect that other faculty will have both the skills and interest in faculty development. We should be prepared to assert that we have a body of knowledge, a set of procedures and a group of skills which are not shared by other faculty. It is not arrogant to insist that others use our professional expertise. If our aim is to improve teaching and learning in higher education we should profess these things and provide an interpretative service to our clients—our colleagues.

Neil D. Fleming is Director of the Education Centre at Lincoln University, Canterbury, New Zealand.

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**By Richrad G. Tiberius, H. David Sackin,
Katharine R. Janzen & Mary Preece**

Alliances for Change:
A Procedure for Improving Teaching Through Conversations with Learners and Partnerships with Colleagues

Alliances for Change is a procedure for improving teaching by promoting constructive dialogue between teachers and their students. The process is facilitated, not by professional consultants, but by pairs of colleagues voluntarily helping one another. The method is described, connected to contemporary trends, and distingushed from similar approaches.

THE CENTRAL FEATURE of our teaching improvement procedure is the use of face-to-face conversation between teachers and students. Through conversation, teachers and small groups of students enhance their understanding of one another, identify strengths and weaknesses specific to their teaching and learning situations, negotiate remedies for the weaknesses, and reinforce the strengths. Our previous experience with such direct teacher-student dialogue, and the experience of everyone else we have canvassed, has been disappointing. Usually, neither teachers nor students are willing to speak frankly in face-to-face situations. We were encouraged to take a new look at direct discussion between teachers and students as a result of two recent developments: a study of the impact of teacher-student conversations on teaching, and the design of a procedure to overcome the problems traditionally associated with such direct interaction.

The study (Tiberius et. al, 1989) that we are referring to found that information from teacher-student conversations improved teaching dramatically, an improvement which was sustained over several successive groups of students. Further, the authors concluded, the most powerful type of feedback to enhance the enthusiasm and collaborative relationship was that which "lets the teacher know what the students are thinking and feeling *as conveyed in their own words.*"

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They suggested that "this form of feedback is effective because it simulates a conversation in which the teacher might vicariously engage. In this imagined conversation the teacher can experience the students as real people who are affected by what he or she does" (1989, p. 679). The author's were "convinced that if teacher and students participated in a *real* conversation, in which feedback proceeded in both directions, the effect on the relationship, and hence on teaching performance, would be even more dramatic" (1989, p. 679).

The most significant aspect of the study, for our purposes, was the implication that student feedback acted in a *positive* sense, to *amplify* the teachers' and students' enthusiasm and collaborative spirit as well as acting in the usual *corrective* sense, to eliminate weak teaching performances. Most procedures for teaching improvement are based exclusively on corrective feedback. The possibility arose that the addition of amplifying feedback to the usual corrective feedback might greatly enhance the impact of feedback on teaching improvement. Encouraged by this thought, we endeavored to devise a procedure to overcome the traditional problems of direct conversation.

The second development that has excited new enthusiasm for a procedure based on direct teacher-student conversation is the success we have had in overcoming these traditional barriers. The problems inherent in direct conversation are well known. Since most teaching involves public performances and since teachers' self-esteem is highly dependent on the response of their audience, teachers are easily offended by critical remarks from their students and tend to erect barriers to free expression. Students, for reasons of their own, are reluctant to say anything directly to their teachers which might cause offense. Our strategy was to design a conversation group characterized by low psychological risk and stress for both teachers and students. We assumed that some of the features of such a group would be the following: teachers would be in a leadership position; teachers would have a chance to familiarize themselves with the agenda of the meeting; teachers would have the support of a trusted colleague, and even discuss the agenda with a colleague before the meeting; and students would not be randomly selected from the class but selected for their constructive attitudes. The heart of the teaching improvement procedure described in this paper, called "Alliances for Change", is essentially a way of generating the conditions for this conversation group.

According to the procedure, pairs of teachers are invited to form "partnerships" for the purpose of teaching improvement. Each partner gathers information from a random sample of students drawn from the other's class, called the "Agenda Group," and then summarizes the information in a report. The two partners exchange and discuss their reports. Each teacher then takes her or his own report (i.e. describing her or his own teaching) to a *second* group, composed of a *volunteer* group of students from the teacher's own class who respond to a request to help the teacher. It is this face-to-face, teacher-student discussion group, called the "Conversation Group," that is the central feature of our procedure. Members of the conversation group read and discuss the report with the teacher. In addition, central to the procedure is an emphasis on both amplifying and corrective uses of feedback and an emphasis on the building of alliances between pairs of teachers and among teachers and students.

Alliances can be distinguished from other teaching improvement procedures with which it is often confused by comparing it with other procedures along several dimensions. Its most distinctive feature is face-to-face conversations between teachers and students. The use of groups of students to generate evaluative feedback for the improvement of teaching is a common practice, but rarely are the groups allowed to interact directly with their teachers. Most procedures described in the published literature seek to preserve the anonymity and confidentiality of the group by using someone other than the teacher to interview the students, for example, Brown (1976), Clark (1979), Katz & Henry (1988), and Millis (1989). In contrast, *Alliances* employs two types of groups, one which follows the traditional proscription against the presence of the teacher, and the other which includes the teacher (under conditions designed to be favorable to free expression).

The "quality circles" procedure, described by Cross and Angelo (1988), is an exception. This procedure does include face-to-face meetings between teachers and small groups of students. It is interesting for us to note the presence of features of the quality circles procedure that serve to reduce the risk and anxiety of face-to-face encounters, features that are similar to our own. For one, student members of the quality circle are encouraged to interview many fellow students and to represent their views at the meeting. While assuming the role of intermediary, a student can speak more freely to the teacher, using the third person voice, "students say ...", rather than owning up to the comments as her or his own. Members of the conversation group in *Alliances* also assume a third person perspective by virtue of the fact that they are addressing an agenda which has been set by another group of students, the agenda group. Another anxiety reducing feature of quality circles is the fact that enggement is completely voluntary, as it is in our conversation groups. Unlike our procedure, the quality circles procedure does not include collegial support and preview of the agenda as additional means of reducing anxiety; but, since the quality circles meet the teacher regularly throughout the course, there is plenty of time for a trusting relationship to develop.

The second distinguishing feature of *Alliances* is its emphasis on the amplifying as well as the corrective use of feedback. The disadvantages of reliance solely on the corrective feedback have already been pointed out in the educational literature (Tiberius, 1986; Menges, 1987). Teaching improvement systems that are based exclusively on corrective feedback are aimed at restoring the teacher to a predetermined "ideal" performance. Such systems are sensitive only to deviations from that ideal performance. But educators and teachers are increasingly becoming aware that there are no ideal teaching performances independent of context. Teachers grow in unpredictable ways in response to unique situations. Feedback from students, in addition to correcting errors, can also raise teacher's awareness to aspects of their teaching that they never thought were important, aspects that they can then emphasize and enhance. For example, the teacher who receives appreciative feedback for her or his spontaneous wit may relax further and thereby become capable of even more spontaneity.

In order to obtain amplifying as well as corrective feedback, the *Alliances* procedure requires students and teachers to engage in open-ended discussion, similar to that found in focus groups but without the pre-determined questions. During these discussions teachers and students share their respective expectations and perceptions of the teaching and learning situation in order to build a basis for collaboration and to negotiate improvements in the teaching and learning. Students are encouraged to contribute *anything* that may lead to the improvement of teaching and learning; the emphasis is on eliminating constraints to the free expression of ideas. In contrast, the procedure of teaching improvement described by Bruce Tuckman (1976), with which *Alliances* has been confused, emphasizes the corrective use of feedback based on peer observations gathered by means of a pre-formed checklist. The key to the Tuckman procedure is in revealing dissonances between a teacher's perception of herself or himself and the perception of her or his colleagues. These dissonances define "deficiencies" which both stimulate and guide the teacher toward their correction.

The student interviews that are used in the Katz program, *Partners in Learning*, are more structured at first than the open-ended discussions used in *Alliances*, since the Katz' interviewers begin with a series of questions. However, since Katz' interviews are conducted three to five times and since the interviewers are taught to encourage digression, over the long run the Katz program casts as wide a net as *Alliances* and will undoubtedly catch both amplifying and corrective feedback

A third major feature of *Alliances* is the encouragement of cooperative relationships—alliances—between teachers and among teachers and students. The teaching "partners" in *Alliances* choose each other voluntarily and are involved in completely reciprocal relationships. They visit one another's classes, interview one another's students, exchange and discuss reports which are kept confidential. Finally, *Alliances'* partners are not supposed to be "experts". Indeed, they are explicity asked not to assume the role of expert observer. They are instructed only in facilitating student feedback. The emphasis is on the students' and teacher's perceptions rather than those of an expert, outside observer, or consultant. *Alliances* shares its aim of encouraging collegiality with methods of collaborative learning and partnerships in learning (Annis, 1989; Ellis, 1990; McDaniel, 1987; Menges, et. al. 1986; Menges, 1987), and with the Katz-Henry model (Finkelstein and Smith, 1991). Indeed, one of the most striking similarities between the Katz program and *Alliances* lies in their embracing the aim of reducing faculty isolation. And the two procedures use similar mechanisms to foster collegiality—pairs of faculty members who periodically observe one another's classes and interview one another's students. The main differences between the two procedures is that *Alliances* partners engage in reciprocal roles simultaneously while Katz' partners switch roles after a semester or quarter, *Alliances* partners function as eavesdroppers and recorders of a student conversation rather than as interviewers, and Alliances' partners serve primarily as facilitators of teacher-student dialogue rather than as expert observers. (Finkelstein and Smith, 1991).

In contrast to these two procedures, the peer observation procedure described by Barbara Millis (1989) features classroom visits by a cadre of observers who are experienced and successful teachers and who have undergone training in observation and providing feedback. These visits are arranged by the organizers of the program. Moreover, the peer observation program is connected with formal institutional evaluation.

Teacher-student alliances, too, are encouraged in *Alliances*. *Alliances* is designed to gather information that is specific to the local conditions of particular classrooms. It is focused more on the activities of particular teachers and students and on their relationships than it is on the impact of generic teaching skills or teaching performances on student learning. All stakeholders in the classroom participate in the generation of the feedback and in the decisions regarding appropriate change strategies; their collaboration encourages a sense of ownership of the suggestions for change and thus an increased likelihood that they will be useful. The strategies for change are achieved through negotiation, with regard for the values of teachers and students, the teacher's and students' perceptions of classroom interactions, and fairness. Although *Alliances* is primarily a procedure for teaching improvement, rather than for evaluation, the characteristics just described are shared with "Responsive Evaluation" as described by Guba and Lincoln (1981) or Stake (1991). In terms that are popular in the "responsive evaluation" literature *Alliances* would be called a method of *forma-*

tive responsive evaluation of the worth of teaching.

Underlying *Alliances for Change* is a metaphor of teaching improvement as a cooperative and interactive process between teacher and learner. Most current teaching improvement procedures are based on an assumption of teaching as a skilled performance. (See Tiberius, 1986 for an elaboration of the distinction between the conversation and performance metaphors). Therefore, *Alliances* is designed to provide feedback and constructive dialogue regarding the social context of teaching and learning as well as the teaching performances. Tiberius and Billson (1991) have reviewed a number of approaches dealing with the social aspects of teaching and learning. Taken together, these approaches define a coherent ideal for the social context of teaching and learning, one characterized by "mutual respect, a shared responsibility for learning and mutual commitment to goals, effective communication and feedback, cooperation and a willingness to negotiate conflicts, and a sense of security in the classroom" (p. 69). The *Alliances* procedure attempts to provide a model of such an ideal social context for teaching and learning.

The following abreviated description of the procedure omits many important details such as the method of selecting student samples. Earlier drafts, containing these details, were found to be overwhelming by faculty who were new to the procedure. We have written a separate version of the procedure, virtually in operational detail, for those who want to use it. It is available from any of the authors on request. In addition, one of us will also be available to demonstrate the procedure. (See addresses at the end of the article).

Pre-Conditions

Since the primary purpose of the procedure is teaching improvement, not evaluation, participation in the procedure is completely voluntary, the teacher is in control of the process at every stage, confidentiality is guaranteed, and information gathered from students is shared only by the teachers and students involved.

The procedure requires only eight to ten hours in total.

The best results are achieved by teachers who can guarantee continuity of experience with their students. Continuity can be best achieved if the teacher is engaged with the same group of students for a minimum of ten weeks But even clinic groups and brief courses can qualify if reports from several of such groups or courses can be combined into a single feedback report, and if subsequent clinic groups or courses can be used as the conversation group.

Outline of the Procedure

1. Orientation Session

Teachers participate in an orientation session, at least two-and-a-half hours in duration, during which they observe a demonstration of the procedure and practice leading an agenda group. At the end of the orientation session each teacher chooses a partner with whom s/he will work for the duration of the procedure.

It should be borne in mind that teachers work in pairs and each "teacher" also serves as a "partner" to the other teacher. Therefore, all subsequent steps in the procedure take place twice, in parallel. In the following text we will use "teacher" to indicate the person whose teaching is currently in the spotlight and "partner" to indicate the person who is currently facilitating feedback from the students.

2. Initial Meeting

The two collaborating teachers meet to share their teaching aims, teaching methods, and their methods of student evaluation. At this time they make arrangements to visit each other's classes. The visit provides the partner with an understanding of the setting which might help her or him interpret student comments, later, when s/he conducts the agenda group. Teachers can also use this opportunity to request that their partners pay particular attention to anything which may be of interest or concern to the teacher. However, if for any reason a teacher does not want a class visit, this step can be omitted. It should be emphasized that the classroom visit is for gathering background information and not for critical evaluation.

3. Class Observation and Choosing Students for the Agenda Group

About a third of the way through the course, the partner attends the teacher's class, as previously arranged. The partner should be introduced at the beginning of the class and described as the teacher's collaborator who is taking part in a teaching improvement procedure.

Five minutes before the end of the class the teacher invites the partner to the front of the room and explains to the class that s/he, the teacher, will be leaving the room in order to enable the partner to select students without revealing their identities to the teacher. Once the teacher has left the room the partner draws a random sample of students (no fewer than four and no more than six) from the class to form the agenda group, and arranges to meet with this group for approximately one hour immediately following the class or as soon as possible thereafter.

4. Meeting with the Students—the Agenda Group

The partner meets with the sample of students and conducts a feedback session as described below. The session can be as short as 30 minutes, but an hour is preferable.

Instructions to the students

At the beginning of the feedback session the partner gives the following explanation to the students:

> What would be most useful to your teacher is for her or him to find out what you think about the course, not what I might think. So, to keep my opinions out of this procedure as much as possible, I am not going to ask you any standard questions, any questions based on my own observation of the class, or any questions suggested by the teacher. At the end, if there is time, I might ask some of these questions.
>
> Therefore, would each of you please tell me about any aspects of the course or the teaching that should stay as they are because they are particularly helpful to your learning, and about any aspects of the course or the teaching that the teacher should change to make them more helpful to your learning.
>
> I am going to write your comments on the board (or flip chart) and then we will discuss each one briefly.
>
> Before I start collecting your ideas, I'd like you to jot them down on a piece of paper. I'm including this step because it helps to avoid the problem of the first speakers influencing what later speakers might say. When you've finished, I'll go around the group and ask you to read your comments which I will write on the board. After I've written all your comments, we will discuss each one briefly.

Writing the contributions

The partner writes two headings on the board: "HELPFUL AS IS" and "CHANGE". Comments about things that help and things that students would like to see changed are entered under their respective headings.

Ranking

Finally, participants are asked to rank order the items in the two lists on the chalk board by making X's in the margin beside each item. Each student has ten X's to spend, five for the list under the "HELPFUL AS IS" heading and five for the list under the "CHANGE" heading. The student can assign all five X's to one item or allocate them to several items in order to indicate the importance he or she assigns to each. The item with the most X's will be discussed first. Items with few X's may not be discussed at all if the group runs out of time.

The partner says:

> Remember that the item with the most X's will be discussed first, the item with the second most next, and items with the least X's may get left out. So if you feel an item is really critical to your learning, give it more X's.

Discussion

After the items are ranked, the partner takes a chair at the table with the students and addresses the item with the highest rank. Instructions to the students are as follows:

> The purpose of this brief discussion is to help the teacher understand what we mean by what we say. So I'd like you to give me some examples which will help to explain what you mean by your comments.

Student comments are often contradictory. Sometimes apparent contradictions can be reconciled in a brief discussion. But the partner will make it clear that he or she is not striving for consensus. If there is disagreement, then what should be recorded is the range of opinion supported by examples, not a forced consensus.

When students use vague descriptors, like "nice" or "weird", the partner should seek clarification of their meaning by asking students to describe the specific circumstances that influenced their choice of words.

The key communication devices used by the partner in leading the discussion are *summarizing* and *paraphrasing*. Thus the partner periodically summarizes the students' comments in his or her own words so that misunderstandings can be corrected before they are written down.

5. Writing the Report

The partner writes a brief report (usually point form is adequate) based on notes taken during the discussion. A form that has been found particularly useful are summary statements followed by a few quoted comments.

6. Validation (Optional but Desirable)

The report is circulated to the agenda group for the purpose of allowing students to validate it. Students are asked: "Does the report convey the essence of what the group thought? If not, please correct it by writing comments in the margin." Students' editorial comments are included in the final report.

7. Reporting to the Teacher

The summary report is forwarded to the teacher for private reading. The partner and teacher then meet to discuss the report. The partner helps the teacher to understand the students' comments and to formulate questions for the students in the conversation group (see below). It is important that the report concentrate on the students' comments with as little influence as possible from the partner's own opinions. The teacher's responses to the report are also central to the process, and partners should listen sympathetically to their teacher's side of the story.

8. The Class Survey

At the very next class meeting the teacher thanks the students who provided feedback and reminds the class that the identity of the members of this agenda group remains unknown to her or him. The teacher further reminds the class that the partner has met with the agenda group for the purpose of defining the strengths and weaknesses of the teaching.

The teacher explains that the meeting resulted in a report, written by the teacher's partner, summarizing the deficiencies and strengths of her or his teaching. The teacher tells the class that "The next step, of course, is to tackle my deficiencies and build on my strengths, but before I invest a lot of time and energy in this, it would be helpful to find out if a substantial number of you agree that these are indeed the important deficiencies and strengths."

"I am distributing sheets to the class on which there are two headings, 'Things to change' and 'Things to maintain as they are'. Please add one or more items that need to be changed or that should remain as is. Or both."

The teacher then asks the class if there are any questions.

Obtaining the full class response is an extremely important step. For one thing, it provides a check on the generalizability of the agenda group because the items that the agenda group identified can be compared to those identified by the class as a whole. It also provides an opportunity to gather other important issues that the agenda group may have missed. Finally, it engages the entire class in the process of improvement, thus broadening the basis of the discussion which has heretofore been confined to pairs of teachers and teachers with small groups of students.

9. The Conversation Group

Forming the group

At the very next class, or as soon as the results of the full class response have been summarized and combined with the agenda group report, the teacher brings copies of this combined feedback to class. The teacher explains that the next step is to gather a group of volunteers to form *another* group, the conversation group, composed of students who will be willing to meet with her or him and the partner for the purpose of assisting them in interpreting the report and in making suggestions for improvement.

The teacher explains that s/he would like to call for volunteers for a group "to meet with me to find solutions to the problems that were identified, and ways to build on the strengths that were identified." The teacher hands a copy of the agenda group report to each of the student volunteers.

Leading the group

The meeting takes place in a relaxed setting. Provision of refreshments demonstrates the teacher's appreciation to students who are giving their time. The teacher asks questions about the content of the report in order to improve her or his understanding of students' comments and to elicit suggestions for improving teaching and learning.

The main tasks of the partner during this session are: 1) to remind the teacher that the agenda group report is based on prior comments of *other* students, *not* on those of members of the conversation group currently meeting (thus, he or she might remind the teacher to refer to the contributors to the report as "they" not "you"); 2) to take notes if the teacher does not; and 3) to do whatever is necessary to encourage a lively discussion that explores various issues in depth, as well as suggesting remedies for problems that have arisen and asking students whether these remedies sound feasible.

10. Informing the Class

The teacher briefly tells the class the results of the discussion with the students in the conversation group and then discloses how s/he plans to address the problems and to maintain the features that were considered successful. A brief opportunity for questions from the class is useful at this point.

Informing the class is an important step and should not be omitted. By this step the class is once again included in the process. Upon hearing about the teacher's discussion with the conversation group the students will realize that the teacher has taken their suggestions seriously. Such demonstration of concern can have a positive influence on the class perception of the teacher (Ropp et. al., 1987).

11. Evaluation of the Process

At the end of the course all the students in the course will be asked to complete the "Final Questionnaire" (Appendix A) to find out whether they were aware of any changes in the teaching in response to the issues that were identified by the procedure. All issues introduced by the agenda group and included in the agenda group report to the teacher should be typed, in rank order, on this Final Questionnaire. To these may be added some of the more popular items which were added from the class survey.

Summary of the Process

The "partner" facilitates feedback for the "teacher":

a. interviews the teacher;
b. observes the teacher in action;
c. conducts the agenda group;
d. writes a report and seeks the agenda group's validation;
e. exchanges and discusses report with the teacher;
f. introduces the conversation group discussion.

The "teacher" receives feedback from her or his partner:

a. is interviewed by the partner;
b. reads and discusses the agenda group's report;
c. conducts the conversation group.

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Appendix A

Final Questionnaire: To be Distributed to the Entire Class at the End of the Course

Please indicate the degree of improvement (or lack of it) that you observed on any of the following issues by circling a number on the scale from one to five, using the following key:

1	2	3	4	5
clearly worse	a little worse	no change	a little improved	clearly improved

	Issues:	Degree of Change:				
A.	[Brief Description of the issues would be typed here.]	1	2	3	4	5
B.		1	2	3	4	5
C.		1	2	3	4	5
D.		1	2	3	4	5
E.		1	2	3	4	5
F.		1	2	3	4	5

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By Joyce G. Sibley

Beyond Boxes: A More Positive and Productive Way of Understanding People

Programs that promote better self-understanding and expose people to personality and operating styles can be counter-productive, often functioning as "labeling" workshops that generate negative perceptions. Better self-understanding can be accomplished without carrying negative baggage away from the experience. The Bi/Polar system is a unique method of looking at yourself and others.

IN THINKING ABOUT the way we define people in relation to the manner in which information is categorized, boxes seem indispensable. When we define a term, we put it in a box, and then we sort it from other items in the box. Primates, for example, would be put in a box marked "order," but then we sort the order into families and then into the genus and species categories. Homo sapiens would belong to the sub-box "species." Another box would be marked "art." In it are subcategories, such as abstract, naturalism, realism, etc. Everyone in the academic arena has been exposed to endless lists of stages, tables, categories, etc.—boxes for ordering knowledge. Boxes help us sort, identify, and classify. They not only define, but they protect.

Psychologists, personality theorists, and management specialists have attempted this same approach to understanding people and how they work together. In an attempt to identify how various individuals process life, how they lead, and how they interact with others, people have been put into boxes that sometimes are helpful but frequently find legs, arms, or a head left dangling over the edge like a rag doll that doesn't fit. Although some find such programs helpful, others come away from "typing" workshops muttering, "I just don't fit," "That's not me," or "It produced negative feelings about myself." When such workshops are

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part of staff development programs, they can do more harm than good. When they become strategic parts of personnel assessments, they can be highly misleading.

"Boxing" can make persons perceive themselves negatively. Labeling can put people into harnesses. Assessments that produce a feeling of "I can't do that; that's not the way I'm made," or evaluations that give people excuses for not trying new endeavors are counter-productive to helping people work together more creatively or to more fully developing their capabilities.

Almost all personality theories and workshop models are limited to self-analysis and self-evaluation (Myers-Briggs Type Indicator, DISC, Social Styles, etc.). Since many people have blind spots about themselves, the analyses people make of themselves may or may not be accurate. Therefore, although some results can be helpful, personality analyses can be harmful if they cause us to misread human behavior. Also, some programs can have the effect of boxing people. Many of us struggle to get out of boxes. They are too confining and limiting to allow us to creatively deal with ourselves, our potential, and the people around us.

The best system I have found for providing order to an understanding of people goes beyond behavioral typing and includes more than observable characteristics. It gives people a center rather than putting them in boxes. A center is like a hub with spokes radiating from it. It is where you start, not where you stop in understanding people. There is nothing there to confine or restrict. This concept that is based more on centers than boxes is the Bi/Polar system of understanding personality, formulated by Dr. J. W. Thomas[1] beginning in the late 1960s (Thomas, 1985).

The Bi/Polar theory is based upon the thesis that personality is formed by four forces interacting in one's life: (1) a natural core of strengths, (2) your innate capacities, (3) your environment, and (4) the personal choices you make. The first two forces are inherent, the hand you were dealt at birth. The last two are the changeable part of one's personality. In a sense, they are the way you play your hand. The contention of Bi/Polar is that all four forces have equal value in the formation of one's personality, though, in reality, one may impact a life more than another.

Three of the basic differences in Bi/Polar and other models for understanding people are:

1. The totally positive, yet realistic, approach to personality in the Bi/Polar system, making it a very affirming tool. Other systems claim a positive approach, but some studies indicate negative inferences lin-

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[1] Dr. J. W. Thomas, an educational psychologist, began his development of Bi/Polar in 1963. It is a copyrighted program dealing with the psychology of personality and contains fundamental truth about people and basic concepts of personal growth. Bi/Polar is the registered trademark name of the system, and Bi/Polar, Inc. is located in Austin, Texas.

ger in some of the concepts, terminology, and practical applications.

2. The holistic approach to interpreting personality in Bi/Polar, using the four forces that influence one's development of individuality. This means the focus is not on behavioral characteristics alone, but one's inborn traits also are taken into account. Trauma and stress, additionally, become a part of the picture, as they are components of one's environment and personal choices.

3. The use of self-evaluation plus others' evaluations in helping to understand core strengths. The analysis is filled out by self and five other people selected by the person. The self-analysis, then, is averaged with the composite average of the five others' analyses to provide a possible "home base," or center for the person. Thus, the input from an external source makes the Bi/Polar analysis more objective, having more of a scientific base. This home base is where one starts in understanding self but does not limit the person to certain patterns of behavior. It is what one uses when s/he acknowledges, "This expresses some tendencies I have, but if I'm to interact effectively with Joe Doe, this is what I must do."

The Bi/Polar Theory

Simply stated, the Bi/Polar theory contends that all people are born with and use six basic strengths. These are coupled in pairs that are opposites (Bi/Polar) but not oppositional or discontinuous. Both strengths in a pair are of equal value and both are positive. Although everyone uses all six strengths, a person has a preference, or lead, strength in each of the three pairs. One's three lead strengths help identify his/her core . . . home base . . . center. In other words, this core pinpoints some tendencies the person probably expresses in his/her personality. Basically, this explains the Bi/Polar theory. It is that simple.

To go into a little more detail, when you look at all possible combinations of the three lead strengths, eight different cores appear. These are called patterns in the Bi/Polar system. These cores, or patterns, are like categories, such as engineer or philosopher. Obviously, all people in these categories are not alike, but there are certain basic threads that run through each system. When one knows another's core, expectations are clarified and communication facilitated. Since unclear communication contributes to interpersonal conflict, knowing another's core or lead strengths produces better relationships and more productive conduct in the workplace. A key factor is Bi/Polar's focus on identifiable strengths, as opposed to attitudes or functions.

It is an underlying principle of all interpersonal relationships that the ideas and feelings we have about people affect the way we interact with them. Because the Bi/Polar system gives such a positive approach to interpreting peoples' behavior, it tends to produce more constructive interaction, as well as personal growth.

The Six Strengths

Thinking and Risking

The two basic Bi/Polar strengths are Thinking and Risking. The Thinking strength is expressed when a person is deliberate and when that person analyzes, reasons, evaluates, judges, and examines. For the person with a lead of Thinking, there is a tendency to turn material over and over to see how it looks from all sides. It is what is being stated when you hear someone say, "That makes sense."

The Risking strength is being used when a person is open and exposes thoughts and ideas spontaneously. You see it when a person intuitively responds to challenges. It is dynamic, a strength of movement, one that fosters change. Risking is being employed when you hear someone say, "That feels right."

Back on campus, if you understand that a dean has a lead strength of Thinking, as opposed to Risking, you will know to give that dean your departmental requests ahead of time. If the request involves some changes, an extra day might be advisable. That may seem pretty straightforward, a concept you could figure out on your own. Knowing *why* you adjust your style, however, affirms the strengths of the other person. You adjust not because "She's just that way," but because of some genuine strengths of the other person.

If the department head, on the other hand, has a lead strength of Risking and wants to make changes in the system, the most productive way to handle the situation is to give colleagues who lead with Thinking time to look over the plan and opportunity to make comments and suggestions before implementing the plan.

A person who has a lead strength of Risking may more quickly accept new ideas. One who leads with Thinking is likely to analyze the ideas in more detail. Both provide productive contributions to an organization, with neither being better than the other. Knowing a person's lead strengths provides clues for more productive interaction.

Practical and Theoretical Thinking

The second pair of strengths is identified as Practical and Theoretical Thinking. The person who favors Practical Thinking is the one who wants the facts, sees things as they are today, and keeps you in touch with reality. This person is likely to be in the Business or Engineering College. The person with the preference for the opposite of Practical Thinking uses the Theoretical strength more readily. The Theoretical Thinker thrills to new ideas, possibilities, solutions. Use of this strength produces vision and the synthesizing of information. The Philosophy School and Art Department most likely have only theoretical thinkers (as a lead strength). Getting people from the two orientations to see things in cooperative

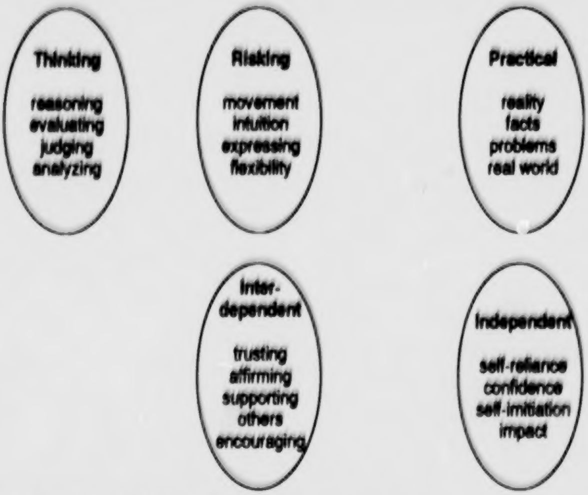
Thinking
reasoning
evaluating
judging
analyzing
Risking
movement
intuition
expressing
flexibility
Practical
reality
facts
problems
real world
Theoretical
vision
possibilities
solutions
creativity
Inter-dependent
trusting
affirming
supporting
others
encouraging
Independent
self-reliance
confidence
self-imitiation
impact

FIGURE 1: Which pill would you omit?

ways requires skill, knowledge, and sensitivity to differences.

As with all pairs of strengths, Practical and Theoretical Thinking feed each other, or work together. One needs to use both to function creatively. They are cooperative, not oppositional.

Interdependent[2] and Independent Risking

The final pair of strengths comes from the risking side of the basic pair and is identified as Interdependent and Independent Risking. The person with the Interdependent strength draws energy from others, likes working with people, and finds it satisfying to trust and even depend upon others at times. The Independent strength, on the other hand, is what produces self-reliance, self-initiation, and self-confidence. An Interdependent lead strength enables a person to seek others' advice and opinions and to ask how things are going with them. The Independent strength produces confidence in one's own thoughts and ideas, and this person is likely to tell what s/he is involved in rather than finding out your interests.

When a person identifies his core, or center (pattern, in Bi/Polar) by discovering his three lead strengths, s/he rarely feels superior or inferior to one with another core because it is nearly impossible to select the fruits of one strength as being more desirable or valuable than the fruits of another. In figure 1 there are six pills. If you had to take five of the six to exist, which would you omit?

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[2] Bi/Polar, Inc. uses the term Dependent, instead of Interdependent. The meaning of the term, however, is more in line with the concept of being interdependent. I have substituted Interdependent (Sibley, 1991) to avoid the negative connotation and inaccurate understanding of the word dependent for this brief presentation.

Thus, a positive attitude toward people unlike yourself is a natural response as you learn to identify Bi/Polar strengths in others. When you know the core from which someone is operating, you are more likely to know what to expect and to respect the way the person functions. A greater atmosphere of trust develops under these conditions. Tom Peters puts it this way, "When people are in an atmosphere of trust, they'll put themselves at risk; only through risk is there growth, reward, self-confidence and leadership" (1989). Many personality systems, in my experience, do not promote the same level of comfort and trust because they are not as positively based. A positive attitude toward people unlike yourself is a natural response as you learn to identify Bi/Polar strengths in others.

A positive attitude toward people unlike yourself is a natural response as you learn to identify Bi/Polar strengths in others.

The Bi/Polar concept can be used to reinforce and supplement our natural reactions to management problems, such as administrative decision making, interpersonal relationships, and even parenting management. In order to do this, one must realize his/her personal reaction strengths and learn how to build on these, as well as to supplement them.

As an illustration, consider the dean who requested consultation concerning one of his department heads who was not performing satisfactorily, commenting that the person "just wasn't cutting it." He felt the person had the ability to do the job and wanted insight, from a Bi/Polar perspective, about how better to motivate the person. Since I knew the person about whom we were talking had Pattern Six tendencies (lead strengths of Risking, Interdependency, and Theoretical Thinking), I understood he provided energy for situations in which he was involved, was a motivator, and evoked warm response from other people. I knew he most likely needed much personal encouragement and could rather easily depreciate himself. Also, I was aware that a person with a Six Core dislikes doing detailed organization and might think a job (committee assignment, for example) had been taken care of just by discussing the item. By simply requesting a plan of action by a certain date, a dean could help the department head formulate and carry through the detail he needed. Positive encouragement through periodical updates would reinforce the importance of the detail.

The dean's instinctive response to my comment (from his own core) was that he had given the department head a job which had to be done but which had built-in discouragement attached to it because it involved change. Since people often are critical of anything that involves change, his instinct was that another job might have been more suitable to this person's personality. On the contrary, a Pattern Six needs the encouragement and feedback from people, not jobs. The dean's own encouragement would have been the most helpful motivation. Bi/Polar contends that because a job is not natural to a person's personality is no reason to avoid giving him/her the task. It enables you to understand the stretching and growing that will be experienced by the person.

One way to learn about the Bi/Polar concept is through a workshop where people begin to visualize their differences in a positive framework. A workshop is designed to show people how to adjust their instinctive responses to meet the needs of their interpersonal interactions. It consists of three sections. In the first, an individual looks at self and begins to understand how s/he instinctively responds to people and life tasks. In other words, during this phase the person begins to focus more clearly on his/her personal strengths and to evaluate his responses to problems and opportunities.

Phase Two of the workshop would focus on growth. This phase encourages the use of the supporting (or non-lead) strength in a Bi/Polar pair when a situation demands adaptation. For instance, if a colleague needs to take action on a proposal he/she has been considering for some time but has done nothing about, he must move to the Risking Strength rather than continuing to gather more and more information. Why this move may be painful and how to take this step is explained. Also, people find some enlightenment about which strengths they simply are not using.

The final stage of a workshop deals with interrelationships. The initial focus is on what makes a creative relationship. Starting, then, with one's personal Core, each person is made aware of how he probably approaches others, how this may be perceived, and how to rectify ineffective interaction. Examples of how this works follow:

Sample One

A faculty member on one campus complained that his department head moved ahead like a Sherman tank, aggressively making decisions and rarely asking for input from others. I asked if the administrator listened when others' ideas were presented, and he replied, "Yes, when I finally get his attention. But it takes monumental effort to get his attention." We talked about the personality of the administrator, and then I explained some tendencies of people who have the same strengths this person appeared to have (Risking, Practical Thinking, and the Independent Strength)—tendencies of assertiveness, self-initiation, getting to the point reasonably quickly, an ability to get the job done, and competitiveness. People with these strengths respect those who present their ideas without being asked, and if you say nothing, they assume you have nothing to contribute. Knowing the department head's core strengths could signal how to more effectively interact with this person assertively and with confidence. The faculty member responded, "I feel like I've been playing a game without knowing the rules."

Interrelationships are not games, but they do require using personality tools to more effectively interact with the people around us.

Sample Two

Two women professors were departmental colleagues who respected each other but had trouble functioning cooperatively because of radically different personalities. One was analytical, cautious and careful, with the Thinking, Practical, and Interdependent Strengths. The other was dynamic, spontaneous and energetic, with strengths of Risking, Theoretical Thinking, and Independence. Because they were Bi/Polar opposites (no lead strengths in common), the two frequently misinterpreted the actions of the other. The one with the lead of Thinking perceived her colleague as imposing on her, setting ephemeral priorities, and being impulsive. The more spontaneous person perceived her coworker as indifferent, slow to act, and not carrying her share of departmental responsibilities. Both harbored misperceptions, and without a tool to help them understand each other, stress in their working relationship developed. Once they discovered each other's core strengths, their insight and interaction changed noticeably and they established a good working relationship.

Although grounded in positive terms, each pattern has points of pain associated with it, a concept used in Bi/Polar rather than the term "weakness". Points of pain evolve from overuse of any one of the strengths, thus causing an overuse of a tendency. To illustrate, a tendency would be "to talk when you should be listening," a predilection of one who leads with the Risking and Independent strengths. A point of pain for this person, then, would be "not listening," for this would result in pain in relationships if expressed all the time. Another tendency would be to "keep your thoughts to yourself when it is time to speak out." An associated point of pain would be "difficulty in confronting." The points of pain are growth challenges with which one can deal and temper responses. They exist for all of us—for all cores, or patterns.

Negative perceptions of colleagues come, according to Bi/Polar, when one of the strengths in a Bi/Polar pair has been blocked. This process is called polarization. When someone functions only in the thinking realm, for instance, never risking, that person is polarized. Or when a person always is involved in a frenzy of activity, rarely stopping to think or even thinking on the go all the time, polarization has occurred. Polarization causes decay in the personality. A young man commented recently that he never made a decision without checking it out with many other people. This is polarization in the area of the Interdependent strength. Checking your decisions with other people is helpful, but when it becomes necessary, the person is not using the Independent strength. On the other hand, always moving ahead on your own, rarely consulting others for their opinions and input, can be a sign of polarization on the Independent strength. Another tendency we frequently encounter is people who have to do everything themselves so it will be done correctly. This tendency, of course, has some merit, but when that is the sole method of operation, a person becomes overworked and loses the teamwork and respect needed to function cooperatively and more efficiently. Psychological decay, or polarization, sets in.

Bi/Polar focuses on growth rather than identification (boxing). Growth occurs when people use their supporting strength in a Bi/Polar pair, the one that is not a lead. It is what happens when you go to a large departmental or school Christmas party and force yourself to mingle and initiate conversation, although by nature you feel awkward and uncomfortable. Or, it is laboriously setting five year goals for strategic planning for your academic administrator when you are more comfortable with day by day planning. It is also what happens when you present a paper at a large meeting when you would rather just hand out copies of the paper. It is using a Bi/Polar supporting strength to assertively present your ideas to a colleague when s/he should catch on to their value without your having to sell the ideas. Growing, in Bi/Polar develops flexibility in your teaching, management, and leadership style and encourages learning the appropriate management styles of other personalities.

Summary

Ineffective communication, misperceptions, and misjudgments are contributing causes to conflict between colleagues anywhere (McFarland, 1991). Challenging these with more accurate and positive insights can help dissipate some of the tension that may weaken a department. Bi/Polar, then, is an effective staff developmental tool for several reasons:

1. It is based on strengths, thus giving it a strongly positive tone.

2. People find constructive self-affirmation as they discover their cores.

3. The Bi/Polar system focuses on growth, as one learns to use non-lead strengths when needed.

4. Polarization or psychological decay, occurs with the overuse of a natural strength. Psychological decay springs from a positive rather than negative foundation.

5. People begin to understand how they may be perceived by others and how these perceptions cause many of their problems. These impressions may be negative simply because there is a misunderstanding of their strengths.

6. Because of the positive/positive orientation, Bi/Polar provides a healthy set of responses to the world.

7. Bi/Polar "centers" rather than boxes.

8. The concept is simple: six strengths, three Bi/Polar pairs, three lead strengths, a core. In essence, one only needs know the six strengths.

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By Margaret Gratton & R. Dan Walleri

An Integrated Systems Approach in Support of Institutional Effectiveness:

The Roles of Staff and Organization Development and Institutional Research

Both the literature review and case study presented in this article suggest several implications for colleges attempting to mount an institutional effectiveness program. The authors attempt to show that such programs are much more likely to be successful if they are fully integrated and imbedded within ongoing institutional processes.

INSTITUTIONAL effectiveness, quality management and performance continue to be hotly discussed and written about. Much of the current exchange is centered on indicators of effectiveness. What factors truly reveal achievement of quality in an organization? As U.S. corporations pursue excellence and effectiveness, the nation's community colleges also are concerned about the quality of their work and how it is achieved and measured. Many are reviewing mission and purpose. Others are applying latest management trends to their operations. Most are feeling considerable external pressure to account for standards of performance in operations and in service to students.

William Deegan, in a 1990 survey, sought to rate the success of major management techniques as practiced in community colleges. He asked 311 community college CEOs to report which management tech-

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niques they were using in the areas of planning, organizing, budgeting, staffing and evaluating. Further, CEOs were asked to indicate which of the management techniques used would they rate as "very successful" (Deegan, 1992, p. 27). With a 54% response rate, Deegan notes that most CEOs, in the category of planning, had expanded institutional research and data gathering, but few reported these efforts as being successful. On the other hand, in the category of staffing techniques, few of the CEOs had initiated a formal staff development effort with a full-time director. However, of those who had, most reported the initiative to have been "very successful" (Deegan, 1992, p. 29).

Respondents also were asked to identify three top problems facing them. The CEOs cited concerns about staff morale, tension between faculty and administration, resistance to change, burn-out and "general unpleasantness" (Deegan, 1992, p. 29). However, the Deegan study does not draw out any relationship between the persisting problems of morale or tension and the status quo of management techniques. Each of the problems and each of the techniques is treated as a discrete factor, when, in fact, they are related. The key to a successful effectiveness effort is an integrated, systemic approach to the development of the total organization. A systemic approach begins with strong linkages between staff competency and involvement in other institutional processes, such as research and strategic planning. Not only must colleges generate research and valid data, but staff must have access to information and the capability and commitment to process and use it and plan for change.

A review of the relevant literature and a case study will be used by the authors to illustrate how an integrated systems approach, with staff vitality at the center, can increase success of management initiatives and an institutional effectiveness program. More importantly, none of these practices will lead to sustained effectiveness, if continuous staff development is not in place.

Theoretical Framework

Most institutional effectiveness literature addresses a catalog of effectiveness indicators and discussion of their relative importance. What is lacking, in these otherwise helpful considerations, is attention to development of the effective organization as an integrated system. Enthusiastic zeal, applied to any one effectiveness indicator, will probably burn out if there is no consideration of the indicator's fit within the total organizational system.

Many community colleges are still rooted in the traditional university model. This consists of a hierarchy of leadership, top-down processing, fixed boundaries and competition among various departments and disciplines. Even when steps are taken in the interests of broad-based planning, quality management or collegiality, often no fundamental change occurs in how the organization is viewed or functions as a system. Little attention is given to the interrelated parts. For example, in the Deegan study CEOs reported staff morale problems and "burn-out." Yet, few colleges had initiated formal staff development efforts with a full-time director. Expanded efforts in research and data gathering were not being reported as "successful," but no technique was discussed for processing information through the system. All of these factors need to be linked and integrated if the institution is to be effective.

In *Building Communities* (1988), the Commission on the Future of Community Colleges directly linked the vitality of teaching and learning processes with "energy...pumped into the community, continuously renewing and revitalizing the institution" (p. 8). The report further focused on teaching as the central function, the "heartbeat" of the community college educational mission. The Commission pointed out, as did the CEOs in Deegan's study, that on many campuses there is a "...feeling of burnout and fatigue among faculty, a loss of vitality, that weakens the quality of teaching" (p. 11). One can conclude that if teaching and learning form the heartbeat of the institution, a staff lacking in vitality will result in a deficient organization. The Commission's language implies that a systems view is essential to effectiveness or fulfillment of purpose. It also puts the teaching staff at the heart of the system as the agent for transformation of energy within the system.

The dilemma of staff and organizational vitality has been treated extensively in the professional literature. Bland and Schmitz (1988) reported a high frequency of references in the literature to the relationship between renewed, vital, developing faculty and the capacity of the institution to fulfill its instructional mission. They also emphasized that the most comprehensive development program would be one that "integrates individual, departmental, and institutional strategies" (p. 206). In short, colleges are recommended to consider and treat the whole, not merely the part.

In his classic contribution to organizational development, Argyris (1970) espoused the essential importance of valid information made freely available to the organization. Argyris' ideas about the system's use of information creates a conceptual foundation for the learning organization (Senge, 1990)—organizations in which people, through knowledge, understanding, and learning, increasingly expand their capability to shape the future. The learning organization is built on an integrated systems view of organizations. Understanding only a part, practicing departmental separatism, following management trends for their own sake, preserving top-down thinking, can only result in transient successes and demoralized, uninvolved staff.

Assessing institutional effectiveness has become a primary focus of the community college movement

(Walleri and Seybert, forthcoming). This has been prompted by increasing external accountability demands. At its 1992 national convention, the American Association of Community Colleges (AACC) adopted a policy statement on institutional effectiveness. This policy statement places college mission at the core of any institutional effectiveness program. However, the mission statement is only the beginning of the process of establishing an institutional effectiveness program. An ongoing staff and organization development program, based on a systems view, is an essential precondition (AACC, 1992):

> Any effort to assess and improve institutional effectiveness must begin with the faculty, staff, administration and governing board of the college. No community college can be truly effective without vital and committed personnel. Community colleges should strive to promote professional development and a dynamic organizational culture. This can only be accomplished within an environment of trust and honesty, both in institutional processes and interpersonal relations.

Another key ingredient is a solid institutional research program (AACC, 1992) designed to be fully integrated with and available to the organization:

> Board and administration commitment to an "open" decision-making process which is nourished by valid, reliable and timely information lays the foundation for an involved and active faculty and staff. Such an internal culture cultivates respect and acts as a catalyst for empowering faculty and staff. This provides a solid base which allows staff to focus on student success and the development of partnerships with external groups.

The AACC policy statement on institutional effectiveness captures the connection made between a dynamic staff, and an organization development program, supported by valid institutional research, strategic planning and program improvement.

A Case Study

Mt. Hood Community College (MHCC) serves a population of over 215,000 in the suburban area east of the city of Portland, Oregon. The college enrolls almost 30,000 different individuals in a given academic year, yielding approximately 6,500 FTE. Originally a rural area, the district has experienced significant population growth along with economic development and diversification. The community is primarily middle class and white, but demographic data now show Hispanics as the fastest growing segment of the population.

From its earliest years, MHCC has been engaged in assessing its effectiveness, but increasingly in more formal ways over the past ten years. This effort has positioned the college to provide leadership for and to respond proactively to the "national assessment and effectiveness movement" (Kreider and Walleri, 1988). One example of this role is seen in the efforts of the president, Dr. Paul Kreider, to establish and to provide the national headquarters for The Consortium for Institutional Effectiveness and Student Success in the Community College. This organization, dedicated to the promotion of exemplary research and practice in the area of assessment and effectiveness, has over 75 member colleges and held its fourth annual conference in June 1992. The Consortium is now affiliated with the AACC.

Step by step, MHCC has put into place processes and practices designed to support an integrated systems approach to organizational effectiveness. As a harbinger of the AACC policy statement on effectiveness, MHCC, in the early 1980s, articulated its primary institutional purpose as student success. The college went on to put in place an ongoing systematic review of instructional program improvement and implemented institutional strategic planning and assessment directly linked to budget development. In 1986 an office of staff and organization development was established to ensure learning opportunities for all staff and to provide support and momentum for the development of the whole institution, as a system committed to student success. All of these processes are bound together with ongoing institutional research and information flow.

The following will show how the parts are designed and how, as key components of the organization, they create an integrated system of effectiveness.

Student Success/Student Intentions.

Given the diversity of students attending community colleges, it is critical in assessing success that we know why students attend (Kennedy, Japely, and Walleri, 1987). Since 1983 MHCC has been systematically collecting student "intent" data upon entry and throughout the students' attendance (i.e., the intent data is updated on a term-by-term basis).

Combining diversity with the "open-door" philosophy of the community college movement raises perhaps *the* key issue in efforts to promote and to assess student success. That is, a majority of entering community college students lack the basic skills in reading, writing and/or mathematics to succeed in college-level studies. MHCC addressed this issue in 1984 with establishment of Guided Studies, a mandatory assessment and placement program. Evaluation of this program, now duplicated at an increasing number of community colleges, shows that mandatory testing and placement significantly enhances the prospects for student success (Alfred and Lum, 1988).

Based on data collected upon entry, student progress is monitored on an on-going basis, including the analysis of student success in relation to student intentions. This also includes student follow-up studies, which focus explicitly on subsequent employment or transfer to a four-year institution (Walleri, 1990). Such studies document the placement rates for instructional programs and other student outcomes. These results also are used to meet the graduation rate disclosure requirements under the Student Right-to-Know Act and the outcomes assessment requirements under the Carl Perkins Act. A major development in follow-up of professional-technical students is the ability to match student college records with wage records maintained by the State of Oregon for unemployment insurance coverage. The state wage records provide information on employment by industry, wages, and weeks employed for a specified time period. The "match" rate on wage records is as high as 90%, far superior to the response rate from the traditional survey approach.

In addition to the broad entrance and outcome assessments described above, individual departments and programs employ a variety of strategies for enhancing and assessing student progress. These strategies range from further course specific placement to competency-based programs. In turn, program specific assessments are subject to the summative evaluations conducted through student follow-up.

Assessment of Program Effectiveness.

At the core of MHCC efforts to assess institutional effectiveness is the program improvement process. This effort, in turn, is built primarily on student outcomes as derived from intentions data, guided studies, placement and student tracking. The nineteen different factors used in this annual process are as follows (application of a particular factor varies by type of program or discipline):

- student demand
- job placement and transfer success
- employment outlook
- instructional cost effectiveness
- facility requirements
- equipment/supplies requirements
- revenue projections
- course retention
- student success by course
- retention in sequential courses
- discipline/program retention
- completion
- staff development
- quality of the curriculum
- service to students from other disciplines
- instructional alternatives within the college
- instructional alternatives at other institutions
- comprehensiveness/balance in instructional offerings
- service to the community

These factors represent a mix of quantitative and qualitative indicators of program effectiveness. Individual program results are monitored on an annual basis and, if trends suggest that a program is developing problems, an in-depth review is conducted. Results from the program improvement process are then incorporated within the annual strategic planning process. Since the program improvement process addresses only instructional areas, the college is now looking at improvement processes for support services. Pilot-projects are underway which apply total quality management techniques to service operations. For example, the college personnel office is examining the total procedure for faculty selection. Step by step analysis is designed to result in improved use of time and improved quality outcomes. Staff training is being provided to support the TQM application. This leads us to the importance of staff and organizational development as part of an effectiveness system.

Strategic Planning and Resource Allocation.

MHCC's strategic plan chronicles current conditions and highlights planned actions for the coming years. The plan is the result of a series of collaborative meetings at a variety of levels and intensities among faculty, support staff, management and student leaders. The plan also reflects community concerns and aspirations via professional technical program advisory committees, institutional partnerships, other external linkages, and environmental scanning.

The primary value of strategic planning is found in the process and

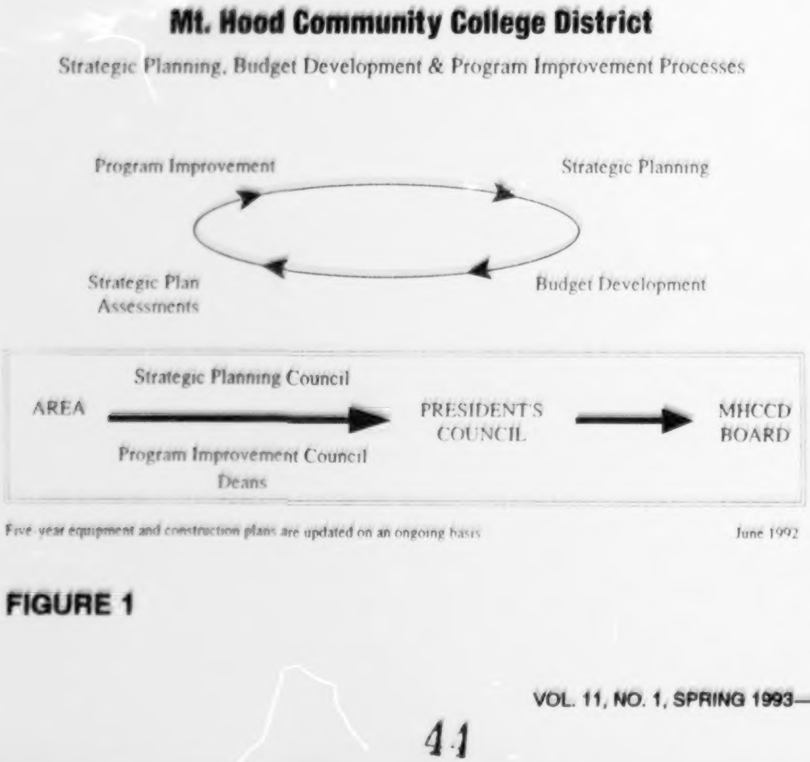
Mt. Hood Community College District
Strategic Planning, Budget Development & Program Improvement Processes
Program Improvement
Strategic Planning
Strategic Plan Assessments
Budget Development
Strategic Planning Council
AREA
PRESIDENT'S COUNCIL
MHCCD BOARD
Program Improvement Council
Deans
Five-year equipment and construction plans are updated on an ongoing basis
June 1992

FIGURE 1

approach to problem-solving, which is documented through an action plan that includes: a reiteration of institutional philosophy; an analysis of current conditions; and a detail of strategic changes that will be implemented within available resources or with additional resources.

Area strategic plans are developed at the program, departmental or service level, with summaries then created across the divisions and primary administrative units. To help plan developers, institutional research resource materials are provided which include assessment results from the prior planning cycle, program improvement process findings, and various reports dealing with environmental scanning, enrollment trends, and student outcomes.

A strategic planning council, representing all campus constituencies, meets and reviews all the area plans. The council strives to insure the college mission is central in planning. The council also identifies inconsistencies across plans or duplication of efforts. It forms a general critique and forwards recommendations to President's Council for consideration in the budget development cycle. Figure 1 offers a graphic describing the annual processes of program improvement, strategic planning and budget development. In the spring of each year, the strategic planning council coordinates an assessment process in which each area of the college evaluates progress achieved in meeting its objectives.

The MHCC strategic planning process is not a static or bureaucratic exercise, but rather a dynamic and evolving approach to problem-solving, understanding the present and creating the future. It is a participatory and an information rich process, creating community dialogue and shaping the outcomes of that interaction. These efforts have assisted in forging better links with other institutional processes and in clarifying the vision and mission guiding the college toward a designed and desired future. Most recently, the strategic planning council recommended training sessions for council members and area planners. The objective would be to reaffirm and strengthen the planning process. Many new staff have joined the college since the inception of strategic planning. Consequently some developers are doing strategic planning without a solid understanding of its purpose or planning techniques. The recommended training has begun. Council members are feeling new energy and commitment to relate planning to mission, to do planning competently and to insure implementation of planning.

Staff and Organization Development.

Without consideration for development of staff, an integrated systems approach would be meaningless. Staff members form an interrelated network of support, teaching, learning and service for the student and the student's success. It follows that students are best able to succeed when the staff is vital and enthusiastic about continuous improvement. Such vitality occurs when every staff member has easy access to support, information and learning opportunities. Continuous staff development across all areas and levels builds self-confidence and a sense of purpose in the organization.

At MHCC the office of staff and organization development works to support continual focus on learning within the organization. When first established, the office conducted a survey of faculty perceptions about professional development, what faculty believed it to be, what they wanted it to be, and the degree to which they felt the organization supported and encouraged them to grow, change, and flourish. Survey results were enhanced by focus group sessions and all the data were used to begin strengthening the faculty development program and practices (Gratton, 1989). Now priorities for professional development are built right into the strategic planning process. This focus on staff development, as part of the strategic planning process, is important for several reasons. First it provides a written record of learning and training needs. Second, it creates a relationship between needed professional development and the

Mt. Hood Community College

Inter-Related Strategies for Student Success

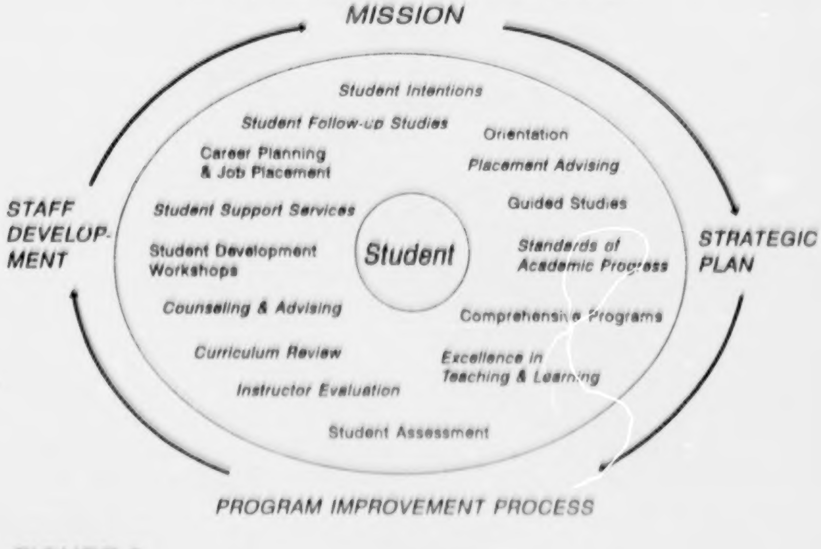
MISSION
Student Intentions
Student Follow-up Studies
Orientation
Career Planning & Job Placement
Placement Advising
STAFF DEVELOPMENT
Student Support Services
Guided Studies
Student Development Workshops
Student
Standards of Academic Progress
STRATEGIC PLAN
Counseling & Advising
Comprehensive Programs
Curriculum Review
Excellence in Teaching & Learning
Instructor Evaluation
Student Assessment
PROGRAM IMPROVEMENT PROCESS

FIGURE 2

fulfillment of strategic plans. Third, it highlights general trends in desired staff development which can be addressed through a variety of institutional options. Fourth, it creates a basis for assessing the relevance of available staff development opportunities and options. All of this directly links learning and development with the institution's capacity for successfully creating the future. Also, professional development is documented in instructor and staff evaluations as well as in the program improvement review. Strengthening professional staff development throughout the system, and as part of the system, directly links it to institutional purpose. In an integrated systems approach, then, it becomes perfectly natural and logical to give considerable attention to the quality of teaching and learning and to have faculty and staff actively involved in assessing not only students' performances, but their own professional effectiveness as well.

MHCC offers a whole array of staff development opportunities including a structured Teaching Improvement Process (TIP), Small Group Instructional Diagnosis, and support for classroom research as developed by Cross and Angelo (1988). An intensive two-week program of learning activities is provided annually prior to the beginning of classes. The primary purpose of the program is enhancement of teaching and learning and may include anything from instructional design, to multi-media techniques, to stress management, to presentation of awards, to general celebration of teaching and learning. In addition all employees have access to conference funds and program development and innovation funds. Custom designed training for any area is regularly available upon request. Currently a "student success strategies" team is helping build a plan for a teaching and learning center (TLC) to serve all staff. Their dream has been integrated into the strategic planning and budget development processes. The planned teaching and learning center will provide learning opportunities for not only faculty but administrators and support staff as well — again strengthening the concept of integrated systems and the learning organization.

Research conducted at MHCC as well as the general literature has clearly demonstrated that the primary factor in student success is the quality and intensity of student-faculty-staff interactions. The processes and activities described above are designed to foster an environment in which these interactions can be maximized. Success in these efforts is validated through student outcomes assessment.

Figure 2, "Interrelated Strategies for Student Success," attempts to summarize the above discussion. The student is the center of all college activity and it has been found that student success can be influenced by the quality and integrity of the various support services and programs depicted. At the outer edge are institutional processes such as strategic planning and program improvement (i.e., assessment). Planning and assessment are now more central to institutional life by integrating on-going professional development as part of the particular process. If staff members can internalize planning and assessment and make the connections between those processes and their daily work, then both the teaching and learning process and planning and assessment activities are enriched.

In summary, MHCC has worked hard to ensure and assess institutional effectiveness and student success through an integrated systems approach. The annual processes implemented and refined over the past five years do require a high degree of participation and commitment of time and resources. However, the effort has been worth the cost for it has brought MHCC to new heights of excellence as a learning organization in fulfilling the institutional mission.

Mission to Measurement.

Recently the integration of teaching effectiveness, student outcomes, and institutional mission has been further enhanced by what is called "mission to measurement." The college's six-point mission statement was broken out into "theme" components. Then, current practices which fulfilled mission themes were identified. Expected outcomes of practices and ways to measure, or at least document the outcomes, completed the organization of information for "mission to measurement." For example, one part of the MHCC mission says that the college will "be responsive to the realities and demands of a changing world." In the mission to measurement document, this theme is illustrated by citing the work of off-campus centers, business and industry partnerships, special grants, work with advisory committees, or curriculum innovation. Included are the results or outcomes of these practices, such as increased on-the-job training. The final component in the mission to measurement cycle is performance measures. In the case of on-the-job training, such a measure might be increased employer satisfaction. Last year, in the annual assessment of the strategic plan, areas were asked to document further how current practices fulfill the mission. The "mission to measurement" process is building a systems-wide consciousness of the inter-relatedness of mission, planning, practices, assessment and effectiveness.

Implications and Conclusion

Both the literature review and case study suggest several implications for colleges attempting to mount an institutional effectiveness program. Strong institutional research and professional/organization development programs are somewhat obvious preconditions. What we have attempted to show, however, is that such programs are much more likely to be successful if they are fully integrated and imbedded within ongoing institutional processes. The results reported by Deegan (1992) reflect a lack of leadership and organization development practices which would integrate institutional effectiveness initiatives in a systems approach. This, in turn, can lead to isolation of the teaching and learning process, low staff morale, and fragmented efforts reported by the responding CEOs.

Successful institutional effectiveness programs are marked by support and commitment across the college community within genuinely open decision making systems. Leadership and innovation are encouraged at all levels and supported by appropriate institutional processes. Such a climate can be created given time and nourishment. The MHCC example represents over seven years of patient perseverance as processes were developed, fine tuned and then linked to form an integrated whole. The integrated systems approach is not "done." It continues to be shaped and strengthened. The validity of the processes relies on faculty and staff participation. In turn, faculty and staff become comfortable with and committed to continuous improvement, ultimately realized through improved student success.

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By Marshall Olp, Kathy Watson, and Millicent Valek

Appraisal of Faculty: Designing a System From Scratch

While not always a harmonious venture, creating a new faculty appraisal system at Arizona Western College has been a healthy undertaking for the institution.

CLASSIC RESEARCH in the area of employee motivation reveals that people generally regard work itself as rewarding and that certain job factors act as motivators (Herzberg, 1976; McGregor, 1985). More recent studies by Feistrizer (1986), Kottkamp, Provenzo and Cohen (1987), Cohen and Brawer (1982) and Baker and Prugh (1988) find that teachers enter the profession to help others learn and that the extent to which they are able to do this serves as a powerful motivator. Intrinsic rewards accrue from the teaching/learning activity and can lead to improved performance and job satisfaction (Frase & Piland, 1989).

Faculty should be highly interested in learning about their classroom effectiveness. In the real world, however, faculty appraisal is often viewed with as much enthusiasm as a trip to the dentist. No one denies its importance, but no one really looks forward to it either. Perhaps the challenge for appraisal systems is to provide faculty with as much feedback as possible about their work from as many sources as are appropriate in a manner that is supportive rather than threatening.

Background

Arizona Western College is located in the southwestern corner of Arizona near Yuma. The college serves an area of 10,000 square miles with satellite centers in San Luis on the Mexican border; and in Parker, 120 miles north of Yuma in La Paz County. The student population is currently at 6,500 with steady growth predicted for the future. There are 85 full-time faculty members and over 200 associate faculty. Arizona Western College recently formed a 2+2 linkage with Northern

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Arizona University that enables students pursuing some programs to complete a baccalaureate degree without leaving the area.

In 1989, under a mandate from both the North Central Association and its own District Governing Board, Arizona Western College began to develop an institution-wide employee appraisal plan. A faculty task force was established and charged with the job of designing a faculty appraisal system to replace an ineffective evaluation process that had expired from benign neglect. Classified and professional/administrative personnel began work to revitalize their evaluation procedures as well.

The twelve-person faculty task force was selected to represent a cross-section of the teaching population at the institution. Although two of the twelve members were administrators, their role was a non-voting one, assuring faculty ownership of the project. A consultant met with the task force for two days, during which he reviewed the results of research and outlined steps to follow when constructing an appraisal system.

Philosophy

The task force agreed that the new faculty appraisal system would serve both formative and summative purposes. In other words, the system would be designed to help faculty improve professionally, and at the same time the system would assess the performance of faculty based upon established job descriptions and standards with the results used as one factor in determining continuing employment. It was also agreed that the task force would develop standards and that every effort would be made to provide assistance through a variety of resources to faculty if performances fell below those standards. Conversely, efforts would also be made to identify and reward exemplary performance.

The overarching purpose of the college-wide appraisal effort is to improve organizational performance. Coupling faculty development with evaluation insures that gains made in organizational effectiveness will be maintained over the long haul (Hammons, 1983).

Developing The System

As a first step, the task force developed surveys that asked faculty to define the components of their job and then to rate each component on its relative importance in their total effort. A follow-up survey allowed faculty to identify the various sources from which appraisal information might be gathered. The results of these surveys indicated that faculty believed that 80% of their job was involved with teaching (or activities closely related), and that 20% of their effort would be evenly divided between college and community service and personal and professional growth activities.

Months were spent in deliberation over how a system could be constructed to most accurately reflect our particular faculty's perception of their job. A consensus was reached that this might best be accomplished by 1) gathering numerical data from multiple sources, and 2) assigning a weight to each workload component according to how the faculty responded to the surveys. For example faculty indicated that within the teaching component, 34% of their appraisal should be based upon "implementation of teaching." Therefore, the system was designed to generate a final report for each faculty member in which teaching implementation accounts for 34% on his or her total appraisal.

A Synopsis of the System

Early in the semester, each instructor and his or her division chair select a total of two classes to be appraised (a third section may be requested if the total number of students in the two classes is fewer than 30). As is the case with most faculty appraisal programs, students are the primary source of information on certain aspects of the teaching activity, (Rozeman & Kerwin, 1991). Students rate faculty performance on a scanned form in areas for which students are identified as appropriate sources (see Appendix A). For example, students serve as the exclusive source of data for assessing "implementation of teaching," but are only one of several sources to rate areas such as "classroom management" and "teaching preparation." Students are not asked to rate faculty on service or growth and development.

Another scanable rating form was developed to be completed by each faculty member (see Appendix B). This self-appraisal form contains statements, rephrased and shuffled, that correlate with those on the student form. In addition, the self report form asks faculty to detail in writing their efforts in service and growth. Finally, division chairs rate each of their faculty on appropriate aspects of teaching and in the service and growth areas.

The rating forms are scanned and computer processed, providing division chairs with a printout on which the student mean scores and the faculty scores for each statement are reflected. An interview takes place between the faculty member and the division chair to compare those ratings. The interview process is perhaps the most important aspect of the system because it allows for dialogue to occur. Research indicates that performance evaluations are most effective when the information is shared (Rozeman & Kerwin, 1991). Should significant differences in ratings emerge that cannot be reconciled, additional data may be obtained by optional collection methods (classroom observations/student interviews). Chairs then prepare summary reports that contain weighted rating data for each instructor from all sources on every appraisal component. In the event that an instructor's performance is below the acceptable standard, a developmental plan will be prepared jointly by the faculty member and the chair specifying corrective action and a schedule for implementation.

Implementing the System

A decision was made to pilot the faculty appraisal system during spring semester, 1991, solely as a test of the system. All information gathered for the pilot would be processed and then returned to faculty; no data would be retained. Forms were printed and distributed, and a computer programming specialist was hired to develop the software necessary for processing the scanned data. An open forum was held prior to the start of spring semester to inform faculty of the procedure and to answer questions. Since division chairs play such an integral role in the system, several meetings were held to familiarize them with the process as well.

As the semester approached its midpoint, it became obvious that our goal to complete a full pilot of the system was too ambitious. Minor glitches became apparent as the system progressed through its many information gathering stages. Forms had errors, instructions were inaccurate or unclear and participants were sometimes confused about their roles. A major problem was the user "unfriendliness" of the computer printout which division chairs needed to compare student/self ratings. Therefore, preparing for interviews became much more labor intensive for the chairs than anticipated.

In order to salvage the project, it was decided to test the entire system with only a sample of faculty. Each division randomly selected four of its instructors to undergo the complete process. For the majority of faculty, appraisals were abridged, stopping after the student and self appraisal forms were scanned.

The pilot test yielded valuable information that the task force was able to use in making revisions to the overall system. Some of these revisions included changes in wording on forms and instructions, changes in the anchors for the Likert scales and the elimination of redundant statements. The basic procedure and sources for feedback remained unchanged. All efforts at this point focused on streamlining the process clarifying statements and trying to reduce the frustration level brought on by demanding timelines.

Conclusion

When looking back to the inception of the project, members of the task force sometimes question the lengthy journey they undertook to arrive at where they are today. Purchasing a commercially prepared system would have saved numerous hours of staff time and many of the glitches yet to be resolved could have been avoided. It is relevant, however, to reflect on the importance of the development process. The entire full-time faculty of the college have been engaged in open dialogue on what effective teaching is and how they want to receive feedback on their own teaching performance. Surveys, open forums, division meetings and one-to-one conversations have been focused on the essential mission—teaching and learning.

While not always a harmonious venture, it has been a healthy one that has fueled some fires and invigorated the organization as a whole. The college is pleased with the product—a new faculty appraisal system. Beyond this, the dynamic of change and focus on instructional excellence generated by the faculty in creating its system has been equally valuable to the institution. The process itself has created a powerful momentum that continues to grow and to advance the importance of the teaching role at Arizona Western College.

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Appendix A

Sample Items from the Arizona Western College Student Appraisal of Instruction Lecture/Recitation and Clinical/Laboratory Classes

Instructions: Your thoughtful responses to the following items will provide helpful information to the instructor to assist in the improvement of teaching and will provide one source of data in evaluating the faculty member for continuing employment. The college and faculty appreciate your assistance in improving instruction and your cooperation in completing this evaluation form.

Please read each statement carefully and select the response which in your judgement best describes the instructor. Make only one response for each statement.

1. I was given the course syllabus/outline at the beginning of the semester. ☐ Yes, ☐ No
2. The course syllabus/outline contained information about what I was expected to learn as well as the grading system, assignments, attendance policy, text requirements, and office hours. ☐ Yes, ☐ No
3. My instructor has organized the course well. ☐ Yes, ☐ No

[*Editor's Note:* the following items asked for responses on an eight-point scale of: 0, not applicable; 1, Hardly Ever; 2; 3, Sometimes; 4; 5, Usually; 6; and 7, Always.]

4. My instructor follows a course outline that agrees with the objectives of the course.
5. My instructor's handouts are helpful and understandable.
6. My instructor demonstrates knowledge of the subject.
7. My instructor makes learning this subject interesting.
8. My instructor shows enthusiasm when teaching the subject.
9. My instructor encourages students to express their viewpoints and ask questions without penalty.
10. My instructor begins and ends class as scheduled.
11. My instructor uses interesting and informative teaching aids as appropriate.

31. My grade is determined by a variety of factors (examples include assignments, tests, attendance, class participation and others).

32. I look forward to the next class session.
33. My instructor encourages me to use outside readings and other resources.
34. I find the textbook(s) and course material useful.

Additional Items for All Students

35. For me, this course was an elective, required, job upgrade.
36. If you had a choice, would you take another class from this instructor? ☐ Yes, ☐ No.
37. Would you recommend this course to other students? ☐ Yes, ☐ No.
38. What grade do you expect to receive in this course? ☐ A/B, ☐ B/C, ☐ Less than C ☐ Other (credit/no credit, audit).
39. Rate the adequacy of this form in allowing you to say the things about the course/instructor that you feel are important. ☐ Excellent ☐ Satisfactory ☐ Unsatisfactory

Additional Items for Students with Clinical or Laboratory Classes Only

40. My instructor is present during clinic/lab sessions. ☐ Yes, ☐ No.
41. My instructor helps me when I have a problem during clinic/lab sessions. ☐ Yes, ☐ No.
42. My instructor emphasizes the practice of safety procedures during all clinic/lab periods. ☐ Yes, ☐ No.

Appendix B

Sample Items from the Arizona Western College Instructor Form

1. I distribute an up-to-date syllabus to each student at the beginning of the semester. ☐ Yes, ☐ No.
2. I inform students in clearly understandable writing of course goals and objectives, grading and attendance policies, and text and supply requirements. ☐ Yes, ☐ No.
3. I conduct the course based on a specified set of objectives. ☐ Yes, ☐ No.

[*Editor's Note:* the following items asked for responses on an eight-point scale as follows: not applicable; 1, Hardly Ever; 2; 3, Sometimes; 4; 5, Usually; 6; and 7, Always.]

4. The course materials I distribute to students or require for the course are understandable and applicable.
5. I keep current and am confident of my mastery of the course content.
6. I attempt to make my classes interesting.
7. I am enthusiastic about teaching my classes.
8. I encourage an open atmosphere where students feel free to ask questions and seek help if needed, both without penalty.
9. I change my methods and/or approach to accommodate different styles of learning.

After filling out paragraphs on Form C-1, fill out questions 33 and 34.

33. My rating of my personal and professional growth is:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
below expectations			satisfactory			above expectations

34. My overall rating of my college/community service is:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
below expectations			satisfactory			above expectations

Additional Items for Instructors with Laboratory/Clinical Classes

35. I or an authorized designee am present during the lab/clinic sessions.
36. I or an authorized designee help students during the lab/clinic sessions.
37. I or an authorized designee emphasize the practice of safety procedures during lab/clinic sessions.

Developing Junior Faculty, Total Quality Management

The following book reviews involve titles of interest to professional development practitioners.

Developing Junior Faculty

***Junior Faculty Development: A Handbook*, by Donald K. Jarvis. New York: The Modern Language Association of America, 1991, 124 pp.**

Reviewed by Mary Deane Sorcinelli

There is increasing concern that new faculty, coming out of highly specialized research programs, know very little about the complexities of the academic workplace. There is also evidence that senior colleagues and administrators need to better understand how junior faculty develop successful careers and cope with career pressures. How do aspiring graduate students or new faculty members pickup the "rules of the game" as they embark on a career in academe? How can senior faculty members, including college and university administrators, respond to the needs of new faculty?

Junior Faculty Development: A Handbook is an excellent place to start. It provides a wealth of information both for young professionals who are in or plan to enter academic settings and for their senior colleagues. In preparing this volume, Donald K. Jarvis, Professor of Germanic and Slavic Languages at Brigham Young University, has reflected in depth on his own considerable experience as a senior faculty member, a dean of general education, and a faculty developer. He also draws on the collective wisdom of colleagues in a small research group studying junior faculty development issues, and on interviews with over one hundred faculty members at eight colleges and universities and several directors of junior faculty development programs. The result is a remarkably insightful and useful volume directed to several different but overlapping audiences: senior faculty members, faculty developers, administrators, and new and junior faculty members themselves.

The author assembled *Junior Faculty Development: A Handbook* with a two-fold goal in mind—to encourage senior faculty to establish both institutional and informal development programs for junior pro-

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fessors, and to provide a self-help guide for both aspiring and seasoned faculty. The book is rich with case studies and quotes as well as research findings. It provides detailed suggestions for developing criteria and methods to reward junior faculty, for documenting professional development, for supporting junior faculty research, scholarship, and service, and for getting junior faculty development programs started.

The first chapter, through the use of a case study, presents the rationale for junior faculty development. Jarvis emphasizes the substantial investment in employee development in the business community as compared to the academic community, the projected demand for and potential shortage of new faculty, the influential role of the first employment position, and a number of studies that indicate that junior faculty desire and need assistance.

Chapters Two, Three, and Four then address various dimensions of the academic reward structure and its implications for junior faculty development. For example, Chapter Two reminds the reader that the criteria for promotion and tenure should be carefully communicated to junior faculty and should promote departmental and institutional goals in both research and teaching. In fact, Jarvis provides compelling evidence from his own study that not only promising junior faculty members but also respected senior faculty favor more emphasis on teaching and service than is currently provided in the allocation of junior faculty rewards.

In Chapter Three, Jarvis emphasizes key principles for evaluating and rewarding junior professors. He then focuses on specific problems and offers recommendations for evaluating research, teaching, and service for purposes of improvement and personnel decision making. Of particular interest is the author's insightful distinctions between scholarship, research, and publication.

Chapter Four describes the importance of the dossier during the junior faculty member's promotion and tenure process. The directions on how to gather data, call on the expertise of senior faculty, and organize and emphasize achievements provide a clear and useful guide for anyone who is preparing or helping to prepare a dossier.

Chapters Five, Six, and Seven discuss how to help young faculty members develop the research, teaching, and service dimensions of their careers. Chapter Five surveys programs for research development and emphasizes the key role of collegiality.

Jarvis also outlines tools for developing junior faculty research skills—mentoring, group projects, travel funds, research funds, facilities and equipment, and time. Finally, he interviews productive scholars from a variety of disciplines who provide wealth of sound advice on getting published.

In Chapter Six, Jarvis reports on his own survey of junior faculty instructional development programs. Readers in the field of faculty development will especially appreciate the descriptions of noteworthy programs, of key principles and lessons learned by successful programs, and of specific activities for improving junior faculty teaching.

Chapter Seven explains the rationale for involving junior faculty in service activities and discusses ways to appropriately involve newcomers in university citizenship. Jarvis offers guidelines to administrators regarding what kind of service and how much service junior faculty should be assigned. He suggests ways that chairs and other senior colleagues can protect women and minorities, who often take on or are assigned additional service responsibilities, from the risk of excessive commitments.

Chapter Eight uses two case studies to sketch out model junior faculty development programs. One presents the absolute minimum that should be done for newcomers; the other outlines an ideal program to which any institution should aspire. The last chapter then summarizes the volume and discusses implications for further study and action.

The book concludes with a series of useful appendices listing information sources and organizations dealing with junior faculty development, and detailing the interview guides and results of the author's survey of junior and senior faculty.

Taken together, the chapters in *Junior Faculty Development: A Handbook* comprise a compendium of information on the needs of new and junior faculty and the actions that individuals and institutions need to take to shape a positive beginning for newcomers. It offers new perspectives and ideas for junior faculty support, particularly for developing junior faculty research skills. It should serve as an essential reference for senior colleagues, chairs, deans, faculty developers or other administrators involved in establishing junior faculty development programs. It is also an excellent reference for new and junior faculty who want to learn and grow as scholars and teachers.

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Total Quality Management: Part I

Implementing Total Quality Management in Higher Education, **by Robert Cornesby, Sam McCool, Larry Brynes, & Robert Weber. Madison, Wisconsin: Magna Publication, Inc., 1972, 159 pp. $31.95.**

Reviewed by John Paul Eddy

In four chapters, the authors provide valuable philosophical, historical and practical information on Total Quality Management (TQM) that is useful for higher education personnel.

Chapter one gives the contributions of selected TQM leaders Deming, Juran, Crosby and Imai. Chapter two offers descriptions of

TQM processes, systems, teaming, and other concepts that impact customers and suppliers. Management by fact is covered from complexity to variation.

Chapter three emphasizes ways to determine an institution's quality index by looking at how leadership uses information and analysis to deploy strategic quality planning and human resource utilization to achieve quality results with customers, products and services. A quality index rating sheet is a helpful guide in this holistic process.

Chapter four details five conditions necessary for implementing TQM for the improvement of colleges and universities. These conditions involve commitment and comprehensive in-service education of the administration, faculty and staff that establishes trust in each other and pride in quality workmanship of all participants who are involved. In order for institutional improvements to be made, all personnel need to be committed to change the institutional culture and to invest themselves unselfishly.

A tremendous resource in this volume is the "TQM Resource Bibliography" that includes texts, videos and films, video cassettes, and periodicals (journals, magazines and newsletters). A wide range of topics is covered such as critical problem solving, statistical applications, measurement and evaluation methods, military and federal government standards, leadership directions and case studies practices.

The book attributes the troubles of higher education to a lack of leadership chiefly among higher education administrators and governing board members. The campus crisis is with these leaders placing too much time on the pressures of the present rather than planning and preparing for the future. The present dysfunctional system being practiced by many higher education administrators yields non-productive and defensive approaches. The authors point out that poor management significantly increases the cost of higher education in terms of lost finances, personnel morale, public support, and student benefits.

This book is a must reading for everyone involved in higher education who desires new ways to improve our colleges and universities. While the book lacks research studies on how TQM has worked in higher education, apparently no such book on this essential topic exists up to this time.

Dr. John Paul Eddy is a Professor Higher Education at University of North Texas, Denton, Texas.

By Linc. Fisch

Workshop Gleanings

Reflecting on what has been gained in a workshop or classroom experience is a beneficial process for both participants and presenter.

I'm returning from Atlantic Canada after a series of workshops on college teaching. Due to ground fog and air traffic delays at Logan International Airport, my plane at this moment is entering an extended holding pattern, 30 to 40 miles off Boston. I'm granted unexpected free time.

From my lofty perspective of 16,000 feet, I search the seascape below for Cape Ann, Cape Cod, or other points of land that might identify just where we are. Similarly, the perspective of time turns my mind to scanning the previous several days for things that might mark the focus, definition, and value of the workshop experiences.

The latter process is stimulated in part by some paragraphs I've just read. In them, workshop participants reflect on their experience and its meaning for them, particularly considering what new activity they might undertake as a result of the workshop. During the final session, these responses were collected, redistributed, and then read aloud in an exercise I call "Hearing Every Voice."

Here are excerpts from a few of the paragraphs:

This seminar has given me some ideas about how to improve my teaching, but more importantly it has given me confidence to take risks in the classroom.

I feel that improvement of my teaching skills is not only possible, but probable, as steps toward improvement can be small, and many small steps can lead to a large change.

One thing that I learned today is that some of the things I often criticize myself for are also some of the things I don't value much—so now I have permission not to focus on them.

We are encouraged to do research, research, research, but what really matters is our ability to communicate our ideas, our thought processes, etc., on to the next generation so they can experience the same excitement and joy of learning that we experienced.

I articulated some of my values, attitudes, and present behaviors, which made me more self-aware. I am now considering some different approaches to how I educate my students. And I also received some reinforcement that some of the things I do are on the right track. This is a good starting point for change!

I was challenged to consider that there is more to teaching than getting

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by or getting through the material. In order to affect the lives of my students and fully facilitate their learning, I must have the willingness and stick-to-it-iveness to do what it takes to rise to new heights. I must create a class environment that is creative, interesting, and which challenges students to put their best into their learning and to come away fully excited about their own potential.

I became more aware of a contradiction between my values and my behavior.... I am looking at ways to remove the contradiction.

The workshop has been an excellent booster and stimulus to try all those things I dream about to improve teaching quality and effectiveness.... As always, hearing the frustrations and obstacles of my colleagues assures me that I'm not alone and that there is hope.

Discovering that there is creativity in the chemistry department and low managerial skills in the management fields, but humor in all—and a little cynicism—all added to the sense of where one person in one department in one institution fits into the Greater Universe. And yes, a sense of community was high on my list of goals/values!

[Today's workshop] has also made me want to go and try these ideas very soon in my next teaching sessions. I can't wait to start!

If the workshops have been so beneficial to the participants, I reason, perhaps they have been beneficial to me also. Thus, I am putting this tranquil time spent circling over the ocean to good use by reflecting on what I myself gleaned from the workshops.

The workshops verified for me once again that there are many faculty members who take their teaching seriously and seek to perform ever better in the classroom. I find that gratifying.

These dedicated faculty members seem almost starved for opportunities to talk with their colleagues about teaching. Such conversations seem to motivate them, focus their energies, and lead to resolve to incorporate new ideas into their work. It suggests that universities might well make more concerted efforts to provide for increased dialogue on teaching. This need not necessarily be in organized workshops. Dialogue could occur in monthly luncheons, study clubs, departmental groups, and even between pairs of faculty members who meet informally to share their ideas.

Faculty members working with each other represent collectively a far greater resource than a workshop leader operating as an individual. My trust in that resource has been reinforced, and I'll continue to design into workshops as much cooperative effort as I can. In many classrooms, too, students collectively represent a useful resource that can be tapped.

Given the opportunity, participants can tie together the threads of a workshop much better than I can. For example, in an exercise such as "Hearing Every Voice," my best move is to let the power of that summary stand and not risk either upstaging it or diminishing it by my intervention. The lesson applies as well to a variety of classroom activities where the eloquence of empowered students breaks forth.

I've found again that the best laid schemes o' mice and men — and women — gang aft a-gley (to quote from one of my favorite poets). But the challenge thus laid before presenters and teachers may produce some of our finest moments.

For example, for a workshop on effective use of discussion groups I submitted a sketch of how I wanted tables and chairs in the room to be arranged in order to facilitate breaking up into small groups. I arrived on the scene to find that I'd been assigned to a brand-new "state-of-the-art" lecture hall: ten tiers of seating with fixed desks. Instead of throwing up my hands and letting the room control me, I devised ways for participants to spend a large portion of our time together working in groups of three or six.

This serendipitous example spoke better about how to cope with potential physical constraints to discussions than anything I could have said. We need not let the conventional wisdom of facility planners restrict our educational design. (As an aside, I wonder how often architects have designed "state-of-the-art" discussion rooms.)

Further, we should be careful that our own instructional design does not blind us to modifications and alternatives that might better accomplish our task. A suggestion acquired one day, after conducting a workshop with 60 participants, led to remarkably improved variations in the "Hearing Every Voice" exercise when it was used the next day with a group of over 100 and another of about 25.

And in preparing for one workshop on discussions, I found myself responding to new ideas and sketching out design revisions up to ten minutes before the beginning. The result turned out to be the smoothest session of the week, and the satisfaction of having facilitated such an outcome was exhilarating.

The lessons: Plan well in advance, but always keep working over ideas. Be flexible and watch for opportunities for improvement. And then have the courage to risk something new, having faith in your capabilities to bring it off with success.

Throughout my reflection I'm aware that my helping others focus on enhancing their teaching effectiveness in turn helps me focus on enhancing the effectiveness of my own efforts. That focusing process drives us all forward in teaching, rising to new heights and gaining new satisfactions.

Just now the crackling of the plane's intercom startles me out of my musing. The captain announces that she's been cleared from the holding pattern and that we'll soon be on the ground in Boston. Before long I'll be back in the bustle of baggage, customs, and all that.

But mentally and emotionally, I'll be at 16,000 feet, still held high by the experiences of the week.

Linc. Fisch, a peripatetic faculty development consultant from Lexington, Kentucky, often composes these columns in unusual places.

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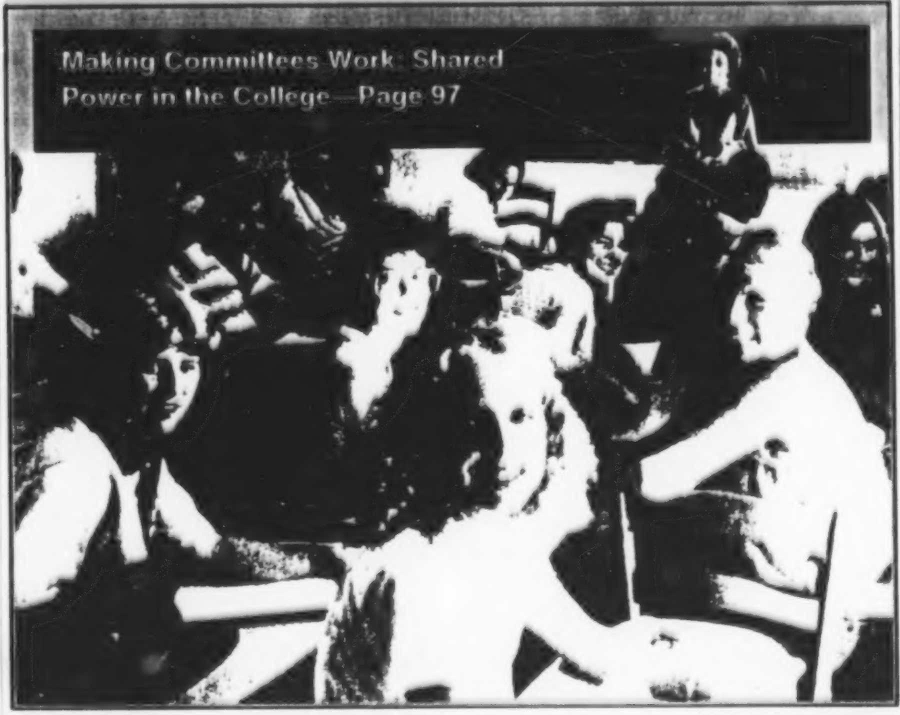

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By Enrique Solis, Romeo di Benedetto & Morris Forslund

Paid Professional Leaves: Policies and Practices in Texas Community Colleges

Forty-seven community colleges in Texas participated in a study concerning policies and practices related to paid professional leaves. In addition to providing descriptive data, the study examined associations between characteristics of the community college districts and the existence of paid professional leaves.

SABBATICAL DERIVES FROM the Latin "sabbatum," Greek "sabbaton," and Hebrew "shabbath." It refers to a period of rest that occurs in regular cycles, originally seven years. Although universities have existed for centuries, no formal educational leave policy was adopted until 1880 when Harvard became the first university to do so (Cooper, 1932, p. 64). Harvard University's rules stipulated in part: "That the object of the professor or assistant professor in asking for a leave of absence be health, rest, study, or the prosecution of original work in literature or science" (Randall, 1923, p. 193). Today, the possibility of a sabbatical leave has increased as there now are many institutions of higher education which grant sabbatical leaves (Daugherty and Eberle, 1980, p. 1; Goodall, 1980, p. iii). This includes nearly all universities, approximately 84 percent of four-year colleges, and about 60 percent of two-year colleges (Anderson and Atelsek, 1982, p. v).

Most of the early studies of sabbatical leaves have been summarized by Goodall, who has characterized them as being essentially descriptive (1980, p. 17). There are a number of more recent analytical studies of sabbatical leaves (e. g., Anderson and Atelsek, 1982; Goodall, 1980; Daugherty and Eberle, 1980; Best, et al., 1979; Owen, 1976; Nealey and Goodale, 1967; Ingraham and King, 1966). However, they have for the most part focused on universities and four year institutions. At this point there is a dearth of empirical/analytical studies of sabbatical leaves and other types of paid professional leaves at institutions on the community college/junior college level. (Some information on sabbatical leaves at two-year institutions is contained in the references cited above. Additional data can be found in Association of Universities and Colleges of Canada, 1979; Landre, 1978; Thompson, 1974; Shoreline Community College District, 1973). And, apparently no studies have been made that compare arts and sciences faculty to occupational/technical faculty at two-year institutions in terms of the types and frequencies of leaves received.

The Present Study

The findings reported here are from a study of the forty-seven public community college districts in the State of Texas during the academic year 1984-85. Specifically, a questionnaire was mailed to the chief executive officer of each institution which sought information concerning policies and practices of paid professional leaves of absence. A one hundred percent response rate was obtained. The study sought to identify the college districts which have such leaves, to summarize the types of leaves that existed, and to describe the types of leaves that were, in fact, received during the 1984-85 academic year, to learn who were the leave recipients.

Three categories of questions were asked regarding the: 1) characteristics of the institutions; 2) identification of the policies and practices of sabbatical and other professional development leaves; 3) characteristics of those who received a sabbatical leave or other type of professional leave with pay during the period studied. In addition to providing descriptive data relevant to the above, the study attempted to ascertain whether or not there was any association between the characteristics of the community college districts and the existence of a paid leave of absence policy.

A telephone survey of thirteen randomly selected community colleges taken from the original list of forty seven institutions was conducted in the spring of 1993 to determine if any significant changes had taken place relative to professional development leave policies since the time the study was conducted. Twelve of the colleges indicated that no changes had taken place in either policies or practices. One institution indicated that policies had not changes but that the amount of money available to participating faculty had been reduced because of budgetary constraints. In light of this information, it can be concluded that the findings obtained as a result of the study are currently relevant.

Definition of Leaves

Professional development leaves were categorized according to the types identified below. Respondents were provided a definition of each to increase probability of uniformity in interpretation.

- **External study leave:** excused from teaching duties to pursue formal advanced studies leading to an advanced degree.
- **Externship leave:** excused from teaching duties to participate in professional experiences in an occupational setting related to one's field.
- **Exchange leave:** excused from teaching duties to teach at another institution with replacement faculty provided by the receiving institution.
- **Release time leave:** excused from teaching duties to engage in non-teaching activities directly related to the academic mission of the institution, i.e., curriculum development, test construction, etc.
- **Other:** excused from teaching duties to engage in non-teaching activities of a nature not directly related to the academic mission of the institution, i.e., special committee work, administrative procedures development, etc.

Data Analysis and Findings

Stepwise discriminate analysis was used to attempt to distinguish statistically between Texas two-year public colleges with and without paid leave policies. Six potentially discriminating institutional variables were utilized: 1) the age of the college; 2) the size of the general operating budget; 3) the number of occupational/technical faculty; 4) the number of arts and sciences faculty; 5) the number of professional administrators; 6) the number of full-time equivalent (F.T.E.) students. The Wilkes' Lambda was used as a measure of discriminating power, and the Coefficient of Variation was used to ascertain the relative variation among the sets of variables.

Discriminant analysis was used because it is a multivariate technique that identifies the most parsimonious set of variables that discriminate between two groups. The groups in question were institutions with and without paid leaves.

TABLE 1
Stepwise Discriminant Analyses of Leave Policy by District Characteristics

Independent Variable	Average Squared Canonical Correlation
Arts and Sciences Faculty	0.0770
Administrators	0.0010
Students	0.0353
Budget	0.0132
Occupational-Technical Faculty	0.0220
Age of District	0.0000
Wilkes' Lambda = 0.92	

As shown in Table 1, the stepwise discrimination procedure indicated that the number of arts and sciences faculty is the most important variable of those tested for discrimination purposes. The value of using the number of arts and sciences faculty for discrimination purposes is, however, questionable. (The measures of association are listed according to size, although no significance can be attached to the size of these coefficients since the analysis involves a population.) As is also indicated in Table 1, the Wilkes' Lambda criterion statistic for arts and sciences is 0.92. Since this value is close to 1.00, very little of the variation indicated by the stepwise procedure is explained. The highest Average Squared Canonical Correlation (ASCC) was that of the arts and sciences faculty, 0.0770, while the lowest was the age of the district, 0.0000. Such low ASCC's indicate that the variables are not well separated.

TABLE 2
Stepwise Discriminant Analyses of Leave Policy by District Characteristics

Independent Variable	Coefficient of Variation
Students	128.61%
Administrators	128.03%
Budget	120.85%
Arts and Sciences Faculty	109.80%
Occupational-Technical Faculty	97.89%
Age of District	59.59%

Since the absolute measure of variability provided by the standard deviation is high, these data require a relative measure of variation that presents a more meaningful comparison of the different sets of data. The Coefficient of Variation, which has these characteristics, is given in Table 2. As shown, there is a very high level of variability, ranging from a low of 59.99 percent for Age of District to a high of 128.61 for Number of F.T.E. Students. This high level of variability demonstrated by the Coefficient of Variation indicates that a conservative interpretation should be made of the findings of the stepwise discriminate procedure, which is more appropriate for approximately normally distributed data.

As indicated in Table 3, 36.2 percent (N=17) of the public community college districts in Texas authorized some type of paid professional developmental leave. In contrast, about three-fourths of all American institutions of higher education grant sabbatical leave (Daugherty and Eberle, 1980, p. 1; Goodall, 1980, p. iii; Anderson and Atelsek, 1982, p. v). More precisely, the 32.6 percent of Texas public community colleges that provide a paid leave policy falls below that of nearly all universities, 84 percent of four-year colleges, and approximately 60 percent of two-year colleges (Anderson and Atelsek, 1982, p. v). Of these seventeen Texas community college districts, 94.1 percent (N=16) provided their professional staff with the opportunity to receive an external study leave; 35.2 percent (N=6) provided an externship leave; 35.2 percent (N=6) provided a released time leave; 11.8 percent (N=2) provided an exchange leave; 11.8 percent (N=2) provided an "other" type and/or duration/pay form of leave. (Additional details are also presented in this table.) According to their chief executive officers, only one of the districts was planning any substantial change in the current leave policy "within the next two years," and the purpose of that change was to broaden the leave policy.

The chief executive officers of the colleges were asked whether they consider the leaves to be of high or questionable importance. Eleven (64.7 percent) of the chief executive officers of the seventeen leave-providing districts indicated that they considered the leaves to be of high importance; five (25.4 percent) felt that they were of questionable importance; one rejected the forced choice and inserted the category of "...medium importance, of importance more for faculty morale and motivation than for the new training and information gained." Eleven (64.7 percent) of the seventeen leave-granting districts utilized a committee in reviewing leave applications. Of these, four had a faculty-only committee for faculty applicants; one had an administration-only committee for administrative applicants; three had a joint faculty-administration committee for faculty applicants; three had a joint faculty-administration committee for both faculty and administrative applicants; none had a joint faculty-administration committee for administrative applicants. One of these districts used three types of

TABLE 3
Types of Leaves and Their Duration/Pay Forms by the Number and Percent of Districts Formally Authorizing Paid Leaves
(N=17)

	Only for Faculty	Only for Administrators	Faculty & Administrators
EXTERNAL STUDY LEAVE —N = 16 (94.1)*			
Full Contractual Period at One-Half Pay	4(23.5)	none	6(35.2)
One-Half Contractual Period at Full Pay	5(29.4)	none	6(35.2)
"Other" Duration Pay	3(17.7)	1(5.9)	6(35.2)
EXTERNSHIP LEAVE —N = 6 (35.2)*			
Full Contractual Period at One-Half Pay	2(11.8)	none	2(11.8)
One-Half Contractual Period at Full Pay	2(11.8)	none	2(11.8)
"Other" Duration Pay	2(11.8)	none	1 (5.9)
EXCHANGE LEAVE —N = 2 (11.8)*			
Full Contractual Period at One-Half Pay	none	none	none
One-Half Contractual Period at Full Pay	none	none	1 (5.9)
"Other" Duration Pay	none	none	2(11.8)
RELEASED TIME LEAVE —N = 6 (35.3)*			
Full Contractual Period at One-Half Pay	2(11.8)	none	2(11.8)
One-Half Contractual Period at Full Pay	2(11.8)	none	2(11.8)
"Other" Duration Pay	2(11.8)	none	3(17.7)
"OTHER" TYPE LEAVE —N = 2 (11.8)*			
Full Contractual Period at One-Half Pay	2(11.8)	none	none
One-Half Contractual Period at Full Pay	2(11.8)	none	none
"Other" Duration Pay	1 (5.9)	1 (11.8)	none

*Because multiple responses are allowed, the total number of leave-granting colleges per category does not equal the sum of the individual institutional responses.

committees: a faculty-only committee for faculty applicants, an administration only committee for administrative applicants, and a joint faculty-administration committee for faculty applicants. None of the institutions used a board subcommittee in an initial review process — i.e. , a subcommittee distinct from the full board which will later vote to approve or reject the application. (This procedure is often used in large institutions to lessen the burden on the full committee).

Table 4 provides data concerning types of leaves and their duration/pay forms (by number and percent) for those leaves actually taken (N=42). The most often utilized type of leave was that of external study, which accounted for 66.7 percent (N=28) of all leaves taken during the

TABLE 4
Types of Leaves and Their Duration/Pay Forms by the Number and Percent of Leaves Actually Taken
(N+42)

	Occupational Technicai	Arts & Sciences	Administration &	Total (%)
EXTERNAL STUDY LEAVE				
Full Contractual Period at One-Half Pay	0(00.00)	5(11.90)	1(02.40)	6(14.30)
One-Half Contractual Period at Full Pay	2(04.80)	6(14.30)	1(02.40)	9(21.40)
"Other" Duration Pay	3(07.10)	9(21.40)	1(02/40)	13(31.00)
Total	5(11.90)	20(47.60)	3(07.20)	28(66.70)
EXTERNSHIP LEAVE				
Full Contractual Period at One-Half Pay	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)
One-Half Contractual Period at Full Pay	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)
"Other" Duration Pay	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	2(4.80)	2(4.80)
Total	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	2(4.80)	2(4.80)
EXCHANGE LEAVE				
Full Contractual Period at One-Half Pay	No district provides these options.			
One-Half Contractual Period at Full Pay	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)
"Other" Duration Pay	0(0.00)	3(7.10)	0(0.00)	3(7.10)
Total	0(0.00)	3(7.10)	0(0.00)	3(7.10)
RELEASE TIME LEAVE				
Full Contractual Period at One-Half Pay	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)
One-Half Contractual Period at Full Pay	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)
"Other" Duration Pay	0(0.00)	7(16.70)	0(0.00)	7(16.70)
Total	0(0.00)	7(16.70)	0(0.00)	7(16.70)
"OTHER" TYPE LEAVE				
Full Contractual Period at One-Half Pay	0(0.00)	1(2.40)	None provides these options	1(2.40)
One-Half Contractual Period at Full Pay	1(2.40)	0(0.00)		1(2.40)
"Other" Duration Pay	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)
Total	1(2.40)	1(2.40)	0(0.00)	2(4.80)
	6(14.3)	31(73.8)	5(11.9)	N=42 (100)

1984-1985 academic year. The released time leave was the next most frequently utilized leave, involving 16.7 percent (N=7) of the forty-two recipients. All seven of the released time recipients chose the "Other" type and/or duration/pay form of leave. The other three types of leaves were rarely chosen, as only 7.1 percent (N=3) persons took an exchange leave, 4.8 percent (N=2) took an externship leave, and 4.8 percent (N=2) took an "Other" type leave. (Additional details are given in Table 4.)

Table 5 provides the percent and number of leaves received by staff status, by the percent and number of staff by status statewide. As shown, only 1.6 percent of arts and sciences faculty, 0.6 percent of administrators, and 0.4 percent of occupational/technical faculty received some kind of paid leave during the 1984-85 academic year. The total of 1.0 percent is far below the six percent limit placed, not only on community colleges but on the public university system, by the Texas Legislature (TEA, Texas School Law Bulletin: Texas Education Code: 351.107, 1982, p. 223). If the total number of public two-year college leave recipients matched the maximum limits established by state law on the university system, there would have been 242 instead of 42 persons on paid leave during the 1984-1985 academic year.

Nationally, public junior colleges report a mean of slightly under four percent and public senior institutions a mean of six percent of faculty who are approved to be on leave at any one time (Eberle and Thompson, 1972, p. 46). Only 17.6 percent (N=3) of the leave-granting college districts provided any institutional resources for projects or research conducted by leave recipients — either during the leave or upon return to the institution. Upon completion of a paid professional leave by a recipient, 70.6 percent (N=12) of the leave-granting institutions required a report or product to attempt to identify or measure the outcome of the leave.

TABLE 5
Number and Percent of Leaves Actually Received Statewide
by the Number of Texas Staff Eligible to Receive
(N=42)

Occupational	Arts & Sciences	Administration	Total No. Technical & Percent
Occupational Technical Eligible	Arts & Sciences Eligible to Receive a Leave	Administrators Eligible to Receive a Leave	Number of All Staff Eligible for a Leave
1,344	1,917	774	4,034
Occupational Technical Actual Leave Recipients	Arts & Sciences Actual Leave Recipients	Administration Actual Leave Recipients	Total Number of All Actual Leave Recipients
6 (0.4%)	31 (1.6%)	5 (0.6%)	N=42 (1.0%)

Summary and Conclusions

This study of paid leaves at educational institutions has differed from most previous studies in that it focused exclusively on public community colleges on a state-wide basis, studied leave patterns in more depth, distinguished between actual leave practices of occupational/technical and arts and sciences faculty, went beyond the traditional concept of a sabbatical leave in terms of the length and purposes of leaves, and obtained subjective judgments of chief executive officers regarding the importance of a paid leave policy.

Of the 47 public community college districts operational in Texas during 1984-85, only seventeen (36.2 percent) had a policy authorizing some type of formal paid professional leave of absence; this is roughly half the national percentage for two year colleges. Stepwise discriminate analysis identified only one variable — the number of arts and sciences faculty — that seemed to discriminate between leave-providing and non-leave-providing districts, but it did so only very weakly. During the period studied, only one percent of faculty and administrators at Texas public community colleges received some sort of paid leave. Unlike the traditional sabbatical purposes of research or creative activity, two-thirds of these individuals received an external study leave. Most of the others also received some nontraditional sabbatical leave: an externship, exchange leave, released time, or "other" type and/or duration/pay. Most districts did not provide any institutional support for projects or research conducted by leave recipients. But, upon return to the college, 70.6 percent of those with leave policies required some report or product as a measure of leave outcome.

The primary function of paid leaves in public Texas two-year colleges appears to be to assist the faculty — and principally the arts and sciences faculty — to enrich themselves personally and professionally through the pursuit of terminal or doctoral degrees. In describing the period from 1880 to 1932, Cooper identified the professions themselves as the primary beneficiary of such leaves, with the persons and institutions involved benefiting only secondarily (1932). Later, Ingraham and King also highlighted the professional benefit of sabbatical leaves (1966, p. 84). More recent studies have found that for all types of institutions of higher education collectively, leaves were granted for research, writing, travel, and health. By contrast, public community colleges favored leaves for the improvement of teaching. Thus, the purpose for which the great majority of leaves are granted by public Texas two-year colleges seems to differ from what have been traditional reasons for granting a sabbatical (Association of Universities and Colleges, 1979, p. 1; Eberle and Thompson, 1971, pp. 49-54; Ingraham and King, 1966, p. 246; Landre, 1978, p. 7; Shoreline Community College District, 1973, p. 5; Thompson, 1974, p. 97).

What appears to be needed is research that assesses the outcomes of paid professional leaves in terms of the purposes for which the were granted and that also assesses the relative benefits of such leaves to the granting institutions, the professions, and to the individuals who receive them. In an age of increasing demands for accountability and increasing funding pressures, evidence will be needed to determine whether or not the granting institutions of higher education receive a worthwhile and defensible return on their substantial investments in sabbatical or other types of paid professional leaves. Are the districts basically subsidizing individual development and careers? If doctoral degrees for arts and sciences faculty are rated so highly desirable by the districts that the districts make a substantial contribution toward their costs, then perhaps the districts may want to consider the benefit of revising the hiring criteria to reflect that priority. In an age of increasing budget restrictions, the reception of a doctoral degree that apparently benefits primarily the leave recipient may become increasingly difficult to defend.

As policies are increasingly budget driven, it seems that the faculty exchange type of paid leave may become the preferred type, since the leave does not cost the district any money beyond the salary normally paid because the classes are taught by a replacement at no extra cost. Sometimes the salary of a paid leave may also come from outside sources as in the case of John Cates during his leave from the University of California at San Diego (Kim, 1991, p. A5) who spent time traveling with actor Arnold Schwarzenegger while conducting a study of youth fitness in 50 states. Districts may consider extending the possibility of their paid leaves, especially the faculty exchange, into the summer months. A summer option would be very helpful as more spouses are becoming gainfully employed and it is increasingly more difficult for faculty to take a leave that otherwise would be well for them to take.

At a time when the world is rapidly changing, faculty leaves could be incorporated into the broader process of organizational change and development. An issue that might well be examined in a future study is the use to which the report, that is submitted upon the completion of a leave, is put. Although this study did not examine this item, the impression from widespread discussion is that these reports might simply be filed. In a California study (California State Postsecondary Education Commission, 1989) it was recommended that there be better planning and coordination, and that a process for the evaluation of faculty development should be established.

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By John P. Murray

The Department Chairperson: The Confessions of a Researcher Turned Practitioner

This article contrasts a study of faculty expectations of chairpersons with the confessions of a researcher turned practitioner. The article includes observations regarding the concurrence between the researcher's findings and the reality the practitioner found after assuming the role. The department chairperson may be the singularly most important administrative position. Therefore, it becomes imperative to identify the expectations others have of chairpersons. Often, the absurdly excessive expectations of others leads chairpersons to forge their own understanding of the position.

THE SYMBIOTIC CONNECTION between the quality of the education delivered and the quality of departmental leadership seems beyond dispute (Hammons, 1984; Whitson and Hubert, 1982; Bennett, 1983). Low morale, job dissatisfaction, and/or stress related illnesses are but a few of the effects of role conflict and ambiguity suffered by chairpersons (Turner and Boice, 1989; Hageseth & Atkins, 1988; Singleton, 1987). Therefore, it becomes imperative to identify the expectations others have of chairpersons. Despite the critical importance of chairpersons to the success of a college, the expectations that faculty have of chairpersons have received very little attention. The study reported here was one attempt to remedy this deficit.

The study discussed in this paper was conducted as a follow-up to a previous study. The first study used a modified Delphi technique (Murray, 1992) and involved 50 participants. The follow-up study used qualitative interviewing techniques. The Delphi study revealed that the participants believed that the chairperson was or should be responsible for an enormous multitude of duties. However, the Delphi participants displayed a marked preference for shared or participatory leadership. The activities deemed of highest priority dealt with representing the department to the administration and others, sharing the decision-making process with department members, and fairly allocating work assignments.

Interviewing Rationale

Interviews were conducted at the conclusion of the Delphi process in an attempt to uncover the influences and motivations for individuals' responses to the Delphi items. Because the interviewer was primarily interested in uncovering the meanings that participants attributed to their experiences, qualitative, open-ended interviews were used. "The purpose of open-ended interviewing is ... to access the perspective of the person being interviewed" (Patton, 1980, p. 196).

The basic difference between qualitative, open-ended interviews and quantitative, survey-type interviews involves the amount of structure introduced by the researcher. Qualitative interviews are unstructured or loosely structured, while quantitative interviews are completely structured. This investigation started with a series of unstructured, open-ended interviews.

The unstructured interview relies on the interviewee's account of what is relevant or meaningful to his or her situation. Basic to any qualitative study is the assumption that communities, schools, and social settings of any variety, have pluralistic sets of values that may from time to time cause conflict. ... to understand what those sets of values are and to understand at which points they are in conflict, it is necessary to ground inquiry and evaluation activities in the multiple perspectives that are held by the group or community leaders and participants. The standardized or survey interview assumes value consensus (and handles variations in expected "norms" statistically) and therefore does not take account of multiple world views (Guba and Lincoln, 1981, p. 156).

Clearly, the Delphi process that preceded this study had revealed the existence of pluralistic, conflicting perspectives on the role of department chairpersons. However, the Delphi process had only revealed the conflicting world views; it had not clarified how they had come about or how they interacted in the day-to-day existence of the chairperson. The follow-up study using qualitative interviewing techniques was needed to provide some insight into how individuals arrived at their beliefs regarding the proper role of chairpersons.

Interviewing Instrumentation

To conduct the interviews for this study, the researcher designed protocols based on Patton's (1980) categories of qualitative interviews. The fundamental differences among the protocols involves the degree of structure imposed by the interviewer. According to Patton's taxonomy, there are two types of relatively, free-flowing qualitative interviews—the informal conversational interview (also called the phenomenological approach) and the general interview guide approach (p. 197). The fundamental difference is the degree of control the interviewer assumes both before and during the interview session. "The phenomenological interviewer wants to maintain maximum flexibility to be able to pursue information in whatever direction appears to be appropriate. ... No predetermined set of questions is possible ... " (Patton, 1980, p. 198-199).

This study began with a series of informal conversational interviews because their format allowed the participants to define the issues and topics that were important to them. Despite the enormous appeal of flexibility that these interviews provide, this same flexibility is also a potential weakness. " ... it may take several conversations with different people before a similar set of questions has been posed to each participant ... The informal conversational interview is also more open to interviewer effects ... " (Patton, 1980, p. 200).

To mitigate these potential disadvantages, a second series of interviews using the general interview guide approach were also conducted. According to Patton (1980) the "interview guide simply serves as a basic checklist during the interview to make sure all relevant topics are covered ... but no set of standardized questions is written in advance" (Patton, 1980, p. 198).

The advantage of the general interview guide approach is that it "helps make interviewing across a number of different people more systematic and comprehensive by delimiting the issues to be discussed in the interview" (pp. 200-201). Thus, using a general interview guide approach where the interview categories emerged from the informal conversational interviews, provided a reliable means to convert the disadvantages of the phenomenological interviews into advantages.

The selection of the interview candidates was the first and most crucial step. A positivistic researcher would randomly select the candidates. However, in order to weave meaning into the divergent accounts of the participants, it was crucial to this study that those interviewed have special knowledge.

> ... multiple realities are contained in the unique, the singular, the idiosyncratic, the deviant, the exceptional, the unusual, the divergent perceptions of individuals, as they live or lived the experience. The [qualitative] interview is thus an attempt to reach the non-normative: the person who has a singular view because of his expertise, position, or insight; the respondent with special information; and/or the interviewee who is central to a situation or otherwise holds a unique position (Guba and Lincoln, 1981, p. 157).

The selection of individuals meeting these qualification was undesirable and improbable before the

Delphi process began. During the successive iterations of the Delphi, the tone and/or content of certain individual's responses suggested their inclusion in the interview stage.

At the conclusion of the Delphi stage, certain themes began to emerge and some participants' responses suggested that they may have more insight into the role expectations of the chairperson in the two-year college or that they may be outside the mainstream of thought represented by the group to which they belonged. These individuals were asked to agree to be interviewed. In total, 10 (20%) of the Delphi respondents were selected and interviewed. In an effort to accurately capture a rich and thick data set in the actual words of the participants, each interview was audiotape recorded for later transcription.

Results

The data from the interviews confirmed that the respondents associated the important duties of department chairpersons with a shared governance or a participatory leadership style.

During the interviews, all ten respondents found it difficult to succinctly summarize what they believed to be the pivotal responsibilities of an academic department chairperson. Although the responses varied considerably on exact details when describing the chairperson's functions, all but one *chose* to use the word "facilitator" to describe the chairperson. One respondent said:

> He or she has several different roles and I think it is very important that the department chair should be a faculty advocate and a facilitator for faculty. He or she should speak on behalf of faculty and work to facilitate the wishes and desires of faculty as much as possible, taking those wishes and desires and so forth to the appropriate individuals.

Another respondent, while also noting the variety of role expectations placed on a department chairperson, also emphasized the importance of the facilitating role. A typical comment was:

> I see their role as facilitating the work of the faculty in terms of facilitating the instructional process ... whatever the faculty need by way of classroom materials, by way of the class itself.

The theme that the primary duties of a department chairperson are to facilitate the work of faculty was reiterated by all but one of the interviewees. One respondent seemed in disagreement when he said: "I would see the department chair as a leader—definitely I would be definite on that one." However, when asked to define the leadership role, the respondent was reluctant to ascribe strong leadership roles to a department chairperson.

> [A chairperson is not] a complete leader—less than that and more than a first among equals. A first among equals would be kind of just coordinating things, whereas a leader would be someone who would

> take a kind of a definite position on things and kind of move people around with them—that is going a bit too far for my liking for a chairperson, but I think that it should be a little more than just the person who is there keeping things moving.

The position of department chairperson in a two-year college is much too fluid and ambiguous to be easily labeled. Although the interviewees elected to use the word "facilitator", their use of this descriptor was ambiguous. They often searched for a description of what they see to be a multi-faceted position. The choice of "facilitator" seems to best capture the almost endless number of tasks chairpersons do or have performed. Much of the ambiguity over the proper roles or duties seems traceable to the wide variety of tasks formally or informally assigned to department chairpersons. One respondent, who is also a chairperson, argued that although she sees her "major role" as a "facilitator", the job is "many faceted."

> I play all those roles … and that is the funny thing about this job that it does have many hats, but sometimes I do have to do management. In fact, in certain instances, I do function as a supervisor. If there is a real thorny issue or if someone is not doing his or her job, I suppose then the hat as facilitator does go off and I do become a supervisor, and maybe it is that things aren't clearly defined as one thing. I think we are all of those things if we are doing our job well.

The respondents' propensity toward describing the chairperson's role in terms of facilitating and only hesitantly in terms of leading, supervising, and/or managing seems to have two explanations. First, respondents frequently alluded to the lack of a precise role definition and the consequent tendency to overburden the chairperson. Second, in academic organizations faculty often seem to view themselves equally qualified to manage the department, but superior enough not to take the position.

Many respondents argued that the imprecise role definition generated demands on a department chairperson's time that seem unreasonable. One respondent said:

> they do so much right now. … a grab bag. Nobody knows what to do with this chore so they throw it to the division chair. … I think that our division chair has too much to do. I think that position has too much to do.

The notion that the chairperson becomes responsible for all the tasks that seem to have no other home was reiterated by a chairperson:

> The one thing I would say … I get involved when … it begins to grind on a faculty member. If it happens to be that there is no podium in the room, then it becomes my issue. … Whatever the issue, no matter how trivial it may seem to someone else, if it begins to bother a faculty member, then I hear it. …

Later in the interview, the respondent reflected on the inefficiency that flows from the ill-defined role expectations.

> I do think we are sort of the jacks of all trades because there is nothing in between. ... sometimes I don't think my time is well used because of all the things I have to do, but I don't know who else would do them.

Another chairperson respondent made much the same observation regarding the inefficient use of time that the demands of the role generate.

> It seems that a lot of the work of the department chair, maybe this is true no matter where you are, but what is called administrative or management things are very often clerical kinds of things ... you're looking at class schedules and room assignments and even inventory ... all that stupid little stuff like that. You know, I wish I had an administrative assistant to take care of it.

The second theme that might explain the ambiguity over the proper roles for the department chairperson is the difficulty of managing equally qualified professionals. "One of the hardest things about governing an academic institution is that you are all equals." An administrator respondent reflected:

> You know, I think another major issue that most department chairs have to deal with is how do you provide leadership, management, supervision in some cases ... to a group of professionals ... You have a group of professionals who have some expertise. The department chairperson may or may not have expertise in that particular area ... and that creates some conflicts. ... They really in many cases resent the supervision aspect of it and resent feeling like someone is organizing them or managing them so that is a real ... a real difficult thing for all division administrators to deal with.

A chairperson respondent summed up the tension created by the ambiguous mandate to lead when he said "it takes a different leadership attitude. ... [The chairperson] is a first among equals; he is not a supervisor." The tension created by the role ambiguity was also noted by faculty members. A faculty member contrasted the manager role in business with that of an academic department chairperson: "It is different in an academic institution because the people he is facilitating for are also professional people ... I wouldn't want to be looked upon as a subordinate per se." Another faculty member expressed the tension when she said:

> I think we as faculty need to respect the position of the administrator as someone who is—yes talking levels—is a bit above, and we do need to listen and sometimes obey ... I think that facet is there ... but, I also think that in the business of education we are equals.

During the interviews the respondents were asked what qualities they would seek in a candidate for the chair. Respondents were unanimous both in what they said and what they did not say. Not a single respondent listed any requisite task skills, educational qualifications, or even teaching ability. All respondents referred to what are generally called human relations or interpersonal qualities.

One respondent commented "so much of being a department chair is like any other supervisory position; the biggest part of it is dealing with human beings and there is a lot of that you can't train for." When asked to expand on what was meant by "dealing with people," the respondent said "an understanding of what is important to faculty—what the priorities are ... "

Another faculty member seemed to echo those same sentiments when asked what qualities should be sought in a potential candidate. "Empathy would be one of them ... the top priorities [are] non-judgmental ... [and] someone who would listen, a good listener." One respondent recognized the difficulty of expressing the qualities needed to be a good chairperson and said:

> It requires a whole lot of flexibility. ... [A chairperson must] have good people skills, because I think it is a very distinctly people job ... I mean these are really ephemeral things that you could never put into a job description.

The Researcher's Summary

Any job description suggested by this study is confusing and difficult to summarize. The data etch a picture of incumbents the nature and scope of whose job nearly everyone connected to the college feels the right to define. The necessity of the chairpersons' acting as boundary spanners for all the various constituencies that make up the college community causes tensions that do not appear to be part of any other academic, quasi-administrative, or administrative position. The members of the constituencies rarely share their expectations of what they want from chairpersons with one another or with members of other constituencies. The result is that the role of the department chairperson in the two-year college is nebulous and ill-defined. The resultant tensions are bound to create organizational and morale problems for organizations that continue to ignore the plight of the chairperson.

It appears that faculty, administrators, and even the incumbents cannot agree on what they expect of a chairperson. Administrators seem reluctant to transfer real authority to chairpersons, and faculty seem unwilling to have a chairperson with real authority. A chairperson in a two-year college on a daily basis encounters demands that conflict because of the expectations others have of the chairperson. If the findings of this study are accurate and can be replicated at other two-year colleges, conflict, tension, and ambiguity may be an inherent part of a chairperson's job.

The Practitioner's Summary

The last few paragraphs were written in the summer of 1990, when I was still blissfully ignorant of their import. At that time I taught and conducted my research unfettered by administrative responsibilities. A reorganization at the college where

I taught at that time resulted in the decision to split the chairperson's responsibilities between two individuals. Impetuously, I indicated my interest in the coordinator's position. The coordinator's job description is similar to that of the traditional chairperson's. For several years, I had written about the chairperson's role, and in a weak moment I reasoned that because of my research, I knew what the job would entail.

By "doing" rather than "watching", I gained a much better understanding of why the interview participants were reluctant to invest leadership authority in the chair's position. The reluctance is grounded in a lack of identity. The dichotomous role of the chair being both faculty and administration means neither group completely trusts the incumbent. Upper level administrators worry that the chairs closeness to faculty may result in covert policy violations. Faculty fear the chair may become a stooge who justifies his or her actions in terms of "it's policy". Unfortunately, there is some truth to both assertions.

It is quite difficult for a "newly departed teacher" to totally wipe from memory all the "injustices" he or she suffered in the name of policy. Moreover, new chairs know full well that the success of the departmental mission depends entirely on the happiness of departmental faculty. Thus, she or he will occasionally be tempted to overlook some minor transgressions of policy. Deans also know this, perhaps because many of them were once chairs.

Although chairs can usually empathize with the stresses of the teaching faculty, the teaching faculty often does not care to empathize with the stresses of the chair. The hectic pace of the job, the menial nature of many of the tasks, the conflicting loyalties, the low regard for the duties of the position, the ambiguity of most decisions, and so on are either not perceived or are considered trivial by "real faculty". When the chair bemoans his or her fate to upper level administrators, the usual reply is "well you wanted to be an administrator".

The initial reaction of the new administrator is to pledge their loyalty to their roots—i.e. the faculty. When the idealism wears off, the new chair often finds herself or himself longing for the neatness, anonymity, certainty, and speedy resolution that policy provides. Policy brings order from chaos; however, reality is messy and getting it in "black and white" for posterity is just as likely to exacerbate the tension as it is to relieve it.

I think the problem is that the role of chairperson has become a bureaucratic functionary—an academic Ivan Ilyich. He or she lives in a world where the chairs' mentors include court decisions and federal regulations. A world where the buzz words are "assessment outcomes", "budget shortfalls", and "accountability". A world where presidents and vice-presidents are fearful of setting precedents. A world where vice-presidents of finance have more influence over academic decisions than vice-presidents of academic affairs. It seems hardly surprising in such a world that faculty describe chairpersons in terms of not being "a complete leader—less than that".

This new administrator will soon realize the wisdom of those respondents who noted the "grab-bag" nature of the chair's position. In the words of one respondent, "Nobody knows what to do with this chore so they throw it to the chair." Another respondent referred to it as "administrative trivia", and another questioned whether the institution made effective use of the chairperson's time. It seems that one line on the job description—"and other assigned duties"—takes up more than half my work day and nearly the entire weekend.

I mentioned to a colleague and friend that I was considering having a sign made that said: "I did not go to college to do this (expletive deleted)." He suggested that I have a second sign made to be placed beside the first saying: "And that is why I am so bad at it." Although his classes are now scheduled in several remote locations, he reminded me that an administrator needs to have a sense of humor. Moreover, no educational program prepares you for the many small tasks that make up the daily routines of a chairperson.

In the military they have a saying about the tendency of bodily elimination products to run downhill. Academic institutions emulate the military in many respects. You will make honest errors that can be attributed to you, but one third of the errors attributed to you are someone else's. If you simply accept that no one will gain from this knowledge, you will be less stressed out. A newly departed faculty member needs to learn that no matter who made the mistake, he or she owns it or will.

When you realize the "error of your ways", resist the temptation to devise hard and fast procedures to prevent reoccurrences. When we find ourselves besieged by difficult, ambiguous decision-making opportunities, we often want to resolve problems with policy—at least ad hoc policy. Although sometimes we need to formulate policy, more often we need to resolve the conflict in a humane fashion. Policy removes the very flexibility that the "first among equals" needs to remain "equal".

Two very strong currents push the new administrator toward "putting it in the handbook". First, no matter what your origins, the minute you become an administrator, your paternity and integrity are immediately questioned. Faculty want it "in writing". This suspiciousness propels the new administrator to get it down "so we are all protected". Secondly, and most importantly, the fanatic pace of the job tempts the "newly departed faculty member" to "settle this once and for all". Unfortunately, in a community of educators settling it once and for all is not possible—nor should it be.

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By Carol Olson & Larry Perkins

Teaching Assistant Training for General Education in a State University: A Departmental Case Study

This case study describes how TA training in a department of sociology was revised to address general education, using the discipline as a content base. The format of the introductory course is discussed in this context. The emphases are on the differences in the type training that is required for teaching general education rather than the student's discipline and the importance of providing undergraduates with a firm foundation in general education.

COLLEGES and universities across the country are paying more attention to teaching effectiveness. Central to this effort is providing sufficient training to graduate teaching assistants, who may enter the professorate as teachers and researchers. Most teaching effectiveness training programs emphasize teaching skills and related teaching aids. The assumption is that these skills will be utilized within a specific discipline. Typically, a graduate teaching assistant will then teach lower-division courses in his/her major field. In departments employing large numbers of teaching assistants, these courses often are part of the general education curriculum.

This paper describes a case study in which one department in a large, public research university provided teaching assistant (TA) training for general education, rather than for any specific discipline. The report describes the history and philosophy of general education, the department's decision to revise the introductory course so that it became a true general education course, and the teaching assistant training program that followed.

General Education: Past and Present Views

The general education movement began during the first decade of the twentieth century as an attempt to define a body of knowledge that an educated person should possess. It received further clarification following World War I, when Western values and nationalism found expression in courses designed to orient students to their cultural inheritance and responsibilities as citizens (Rudolph, 1977, pp. 236-237).

For many years, the general education curriculum has been built around a set of courses designed to enhance analytical skills necessary for advanced studies and lifelong learning. These skills are assumed to be acquired through an integrated curricula, including the humanities, sciences, social sciences, and the arts.

General education has been criticized over the years for several reasons: its function has not been well understood by the public and the student; increasing student diversity has made it difficult to design a curriculum on a common foundation; and there has been an increasing emphasis on career versus liberal education.

We are experiencing a revitalization of the importance of general education as educators strive to prepare students to succeed in a world where international boundaries are constantly changing, global economic competition drives business practices, and countries face common sociopolitical and technological problems. These stirring issues, coupled with a rapidly changing technological base, have created a new paradigm in which the emphasis is on developing the skills that keep the American work force on the competitive edge. These skills include abstract thinking and problem-solving, conceptualization, analysis, theory-based reasoning, perceiving patterns and relationships, an understanding of events within their cultural and historical contexts, and communicating effectively with diverse cultures. No one discipline offers a such a comprehensive, holistic curriculum. A move toward an integrated general education sequence is, therefore, gaining support on campuses around the country.

In large research universities, faculty productivity is required in both teaching and research. The emphasis on research in these institutions makes it difficult, if not impossible, to adequately staff the lower-division general education courses with faculty. Graduate teaching assistants provide the necessary manpower for this function. The majority of teaching assistants are found in large comprehensive research institutions where a fundamental emphasis is on creating and transferring new knowledge and in training future faculty.

History of Graduate Teaching Assistantships in Higher Education

Teaching assistantships originated in the nineteenth century as a financial incentive to attract students into graduate school. By the end of the century, the use of graduate students as teaching assistants was well established in the larger institutions of higher education.

The real growth in the assistantship system, however, paralleled the growth in the undergraduate population following World War II, when two million veterans flooded college campuses. To meet this burgeoning demand for teachers, many institutions dramatically increased the size of their graduate programs, using graduate students to instruct the lower-division undergraduate general education courses.

The nation's response to the launch of Sputnik in the 1950s provided another impetus for the growth of the teaching assistantship system. To entice students into fields where there was national need, massive amounts of federal funding were channeled into graduate assistantships and fellowships. Other governmental interventions have contributed to the increasing reliance on the use of teaching assistants, especially in large research institutions, by providing financial assistance to large numbers of undergraduates.

Advantages of Employing Teaching Assistants

For several reasons, the TA system continues to prosper as a means of instructing undergraduates. For the institution, teaching assistants offer an efficient use of human resources. They subsidize costly research and graduate programs.

The teaching assistantship offers graduate students valuable teaching experience and future employment credentials. Ideally, a person who is seeking an initial tenure-track faculty position should provide evidence of both research and teaching competence. It is generally believed by the professorate that teaching assistants learn their subject fields better by teaching them. There is no better way to internalize knowledge than to explain it to others.

Allen and Rueter (1990) argue that for undergraduates, TAs can be an essential link in large, often impersonal, universities by acting as agents of socialization, providing emotional and social support. Discussion sections and laboratory settings are small-group settings which reduce the impersonality of the large research university experience.

The Graduate Student as Teacher

Graduate students are often put in the classroom with little or no training. Fortunately, the public groundswell demanding accountability from higher education has elevated the importance of TA training. Universities are now taking steps to ensure that graduate students are prepared to teach. Teaching aids include departmental workshops, university-wide teaching assistant orientation programs, short courses and seminars in teaching. A biannual conference on the employment and education of teaching assistants draws faculty and graduate students from throughout the United States. Many teaching models have arisen from these early efforts. However, most of these models focus on teaching techniques, such as those used at the University of Delaware and Cornell University. Departments also have a tendency to apply these teaching techniques to the specific disciplines.

The primary weakness of the discipline-specific approach is that a majority of courses taught by graduate assistants are part of the general education curriculum. There has never been widespread consensus on *how* general education is to be incorporated into the undergraduate educational experience. There is, however, reasonable agreement that general education should provide courses that cultivate the student's understanding and ability to think critically. Critics of how general education is typically taught in large research universities argue that the training and experience of most faculty do not prepare them for broad, integrative teaching. Also, most departments do not utilize their most capable faculty to teach general education. As a result, most academic disciplines have turned general education courses into departmental introductory, or survey, courses taught by graduate assistants. Proposals for improving general education experiences always include improving general education teaching through faculty and graduate student instructional development. Yet it is rare to find examples where effective faculty development has occurred.

Teaching General Education Using the Discipline as a Vehicle

The Department of Sociology at Oklahoma State University, a comprehensive public university with approximately 19,000 undergraduate students, determined in 1988 that it would make providing a high-quality general education experience a central goal of the undergraduate teaching mission by reorganizing the content and format of the Introductory Sociology course. This move was supported by the department head and the college dean.

The Introductory Sociology course generates a significant percentage of the student credit hours taught at the freshman level. For years, the department relied on graduate students to teach multiple sections of the course. Prior to 1988, the class sections averaged between 60-75 students. Very little formal supervision was given to teaching assistants after their first year, during which they served as an assistant to a senior faculty member. The experiences of the TAs during that apprenticeship year varied widely.

The goal of the course revision was to emphasize general education as a central feature of the course and use sociological principles as a content base. In other words, the course was to be taught from a general education perspective, using sociology as the "vehicle." Class size was reduced by one-half. Essay examinations replaced objective tests. Additional writing assignments were based on library-and field-based research. Communication skills were developed through a series of small-group projects and oral presentations. Rather than using a standard introductory text, the reading material included a small core sociology principles text, complemented by a weekly news magazine, ethnographic research, and selected multidisciplinary readings. The activities were designed to address all learning styles and draw upon the diverse cultural and social experiences of the students.

It is much more difficult to teach effectively using this approach, as it places responsibility on the teacher to integrate multiple perspectives in a very dynamic classroom environment. The first semester four senior faculty members piloted the course in four small sections. With the exceptions of a common syllabus and set of activities, they were virtually on uncharted ground. Twice-weekly planning sessions facilitated a standardization of the course outline so that it could be exported later to multiple sections taught by teaching assistants. The TA training component was developed over the spring and summer, and initiated the following fall.

TA Training

A senior faculty member is given release time from other teaching, research, and outreach activities to coordinate the TA training, which continues throughout the year. The student's assistantship is partially contingent on his/her participation in all the training activities. First-year graduate students are assigned to a faculty in lieu of having their own class sections; however, they, too, are expected to participate in the training activities.

The university's central administration sponsors a teaching assistant orientation, which the sociology department requires of all its TAs. This program covers general topics, including organizing the class, grading, working with culturally diverse students, motivating techniques, developing assessment tools, etc. There are also university- sponsored professional development seminars for faculty and teaching assistants where attendance is encouraged, though not required. These programs include instruction in effective audio visuals, professional ethics, the at-risk student, and sexual harassment issues.

The sociology department conducts a workshop prior to the onset of each semester in which seasoned faculty and TAs explore procedures and techniques essential to using a specific discipline as a means of providing an integrative general education experience. A central feature is the weekly planning meeting chaired by the faculty coordinator. TAs come to each meeting with common problems and there is a general airing of strengths and weaknesses of teaching practices related to teaching general education skills. Very little of the planning time is devoted to sociological content issues.

The faculty TA coordinator attends the TA's class to observe the teaching and to provide constructive feedback. Students give narrative evaluations of the course and the instructor at the end of each term. The coordinator uses the information gained from these as a basis for working personally with each teaching assistant. In addition, flaws in the course, as noted on the evaluations, form the basis for the continual revising that is essential to a quality general education experience. Because a dominant role of general education is to help students develop intellectual resources for acquiring a more total view of the world, the course must be dynamic and responsive to world events.

Evaluation of Revised Format

The teaching assistants and most of the faculty embraced the redesigned general education format, in spite of its labor intensity. The transition year was the most difficult, in that both faculty and advanced graduate students were used to teaching within the conventional lecture-discussion environment. In the revised format, students were drawn into the teaching-learning enterprise more openly and directly. Some TAs were more than a little threatened by the prospect of relinquishing control of the class dynamics and empowering students to work effectively in small groups. Teaching using a small group process was a "brave new world" for several of them. This is ironic, since sociology is the study of groups. Utilizing group process in the sociology class seemed to be analogous to asking a physician to "heal thyself."

Planning and coordinating the teaching have to be done much more carefully than in a conventional introductory survey course. The time spent on course preparation soars, even with small classes. Confusion continues to exist in the minds of some TAs about the value of teaching general education and giving the discipline a secondary role. The PhD emphasis on research and content specialization conflicts with how they view their teaching role.

The course is now in its fourth year, and the positive benefits are more documentable. The student credit hour production has remained steady, although the course is not required by any department and is one of several options available which satisfy the social sciences general education requirement. The dean of the College of Arts and Sciences showed support by raising the TA stipend 32% the second year, placing the departmental stipend rate among the highest in its peer group and higher than the other social sciences and humanities departments in the university. The students' course evaluations continue to be mostly positive, and, though it is difficult to document from one course how much the students have learned about the integrative value of general education, the growth in their level of analytical reasoning, oral and written communication, and theory-based reasoning can be measured.

With the increased flexibility in curricular programming, the TAs have published a reading and activities manual which is purchased by all students enrolled in the course. Royalties are dedicated to graduate student professional development. An external outcome of the project is that graduate students have learned to work with publishers and have acquired important skills associated with publishing books or manuscripts. The manual is in its third edition.

Planning meetings continue to generate ideas for course improvement. Consistent with the general education philosophy is the adoption of a theme for an academic year. A thematic approach will be incorporated into future course outlines, facilitating a variety of interdisciplinary class projects.

The teaching assistants have discovered a variety of teaching techniques through their own experiences. They are more sensitive to the limits and responsibilities associated with academic freedom. Maintaining fairness and equity with all students while discussing sensitive social and moral issues is a constant in the course. The classroom has become a sociological laboratory as the small groups process is emphasized in conjunction with the use of videos, outside speakers, and field-based research projects.

Limitations of this approach still exist. While the teaching assistants have gained a much stronger appreciation and understanding of general education as a philosophy and style of teaching, they need to deepen their understanding of the classics in human thought. The department is seeking extramural funding to allow teaching assistants to spend a summer reading and discussing the classics in the social sciences in order to be able to provide a more meaningful understanding of sociology within the context of general education.

Summary

This case study has illustrated the importance of preparing graduate teaching assistants to be effective in teaching general education. As teaching assistants are usually affiliated with the department in which they are earning their degree, it is critical that they get adequate preparation in both the disciplinary content area as well as in a holistic perspective of general education. TA training such as that offered by the Department of Sociology is providing that preparation.

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By William A. Wojciechowski & David Lemire

Making Committees Work: Shared Power in the College Governance Structure

There are many views of how committees work in higher education and varying assessments of their value. The authors' major premise is if colleges and universities are to work well, power must be shared and the structure in place to assure that happens. This article advocates that the committee system, usually thought of as an impediment toward progress, is one of the better means of implementing positive change in higher education.

THE COLLABORATIVE work environment, as typified by the committee structure which is present in most educational institutions, is a far superior and productive form of organization than the formal, hierarchial structures inherited from the more traditional British and European universities. A well-planned committee structure serves several purposes. Basically, the committee is a way of getting work done through the direct involvement of the faculty and staff in the governance of the college.

Governance structures in the world of academia are composed of two interrelated substructures—the formal organization and the accompanying network of committees and councils. The whole spectrum of governance encompasses the institution's structures and processes for decisionmaking and communication (Fryer & Lovas, 1990). The former is depicted by the college's organization chart and is accountable for the daily activities and operations of the college. The latter functions as the investigative and planning arm of the organizational structure, and its focus is on providing recommendations to improve the institution based on the committee's creativity, research, and deliberations.

"Once opportunities for improvement are identified ... [the formal organization] empowers individuals and/or teams [committees] ... to begin work on improving the performance of the process. This is usually accomplished with a high level of support from senior management." (Chaurfournier, 1992.) In contrast, elements of the formal organization, i.e., administration and faculty, are charged by their governing boards, through the president, with operating the college and performing its mission. That operation must be in tune with the college's philosophy, mission, and objectives as defined by its board. The operating levels in that formal structure are accountable to the college's administration which, in turn, is accountable to the governing board. The formal organization, however, is limited in its ability to consistently define current, key issues and methods for resolving these issues. This situation exists in spite of clearly established operating parameters for work centers in the formal structure which, ironically, were established to assure overall problem resolution. The network of committees and councils is not bound by these parameters and, by its very nature, has considerable flexibility in its operations and diversity among its membership. In fact, this network fits into today's management scheme ascribed to by Deming because it serves to breakdown barriers between units or departments so they can work as a team to solve problems and resolve issues. (Walton, 1986)

Committees and councils generally represent the key issue areas which loosely fit into the college's organizational structure. Therefore, membership includes administration, faculty and staff from all work centers within the college. From this diversity, the network draws its strength and expertise. It involves numerous faculty and staff in helping to resolve current issues and in formulating plans for the future operations of the college based on the members' collective expertise. Individual committees and councils report to the chief administrator of a broader functional area responsible for resolution of an issue. A clearinghouse for these committees and councils is a group chaired by the president or his designated representative with permanent membership limited to executive level administrators and a revolving participation of issue oriented staff and faculty experts. Collectively, this group approves recommendations, reviews proposed solutions and generally outlines policy implementation. The network is not limited to those groups discussed above. From time to time other special committees are formed to deal with short range issues. Such ad-hoc or special purpose committees are dissolved after making a recommendation or completing a project.

An effective network of committees/councils provides the college with a less formal vehicle of communication and one that encourages grassroots participation. Because the network is not bound by clearly drawn avenues of communication, it can draw its information and views from anywhere within the college. Such practice is encouraged to assure a divergence of views from informed constituencies. The final outcome is either some form of ownership for what is being proposed, passive support for the proposal, or, at the very least, an informed neutrality. The former two outcomes are built on relationships. "The true test of a relationship is not that it can solve problems but that it can function despite problems. Problems don't become irrelevant. But they don't get in the way of what's important." (Drucker, 1990)

We believe that there are a number of important principles which come to bear on the committee structure. An understanding of these principles makes effective, productive, and cooperative/collaborative teaming possible. These principles are mutual respect, individual participation in decision making, identifying basic issues, and mutual agreement. The minor principles are tangible effects, reasonable limits, problem ownership, situation specific behavior, natural/logical consequences, choices, and nonnegotiables.

Conditions Necessary For Collaboration and Cooperation

There are a number of necessary conditions which must be present if a collaborative/cooperative teaming structure is to positively influence committee work at the college or university level:

- Administration must really be willing to share authority and governance with staff, faculty and students. At the same time, these constituencies must be willing and able to accept this responsibility and share in the accountability that accompanies authority and governance.
- Administration must buy into the collaborative/cooperative model of governance, both conceptually and practically.
- Administration must be willing to implement what is recommended by the people involved in the decisionmaking. This requires that recommendations are presented as workable, finished products.
- Administration must be willing to "take the heat" when complacent constituencies in the college resist change and pressure to change is applied.
- Administration must be willing to be firm in insisting upon necessary change even to the point of confrontation if required. That means the group recommending change is committed to stand with the administration.
- Administration, like other college constituencies, must be willing to play by the rules of accountability. Thus, when a staff is not willing or ready for a certain management or leadership style, the administration must be willing and able to accept other alternatives and to change leadership styles.
- Administration must focus on positive reinforcement and improvement of existing conditions, not just maintaining the status quo as is so often the case.
- Above all, administrative leadership requires proactivity. Many

administrators are as complacent as their staffs and often prefer to react. Reaction is characterized by no growth, and no growth is often viewed as regression.

- Administrators must be able communicators and must continously restate and reassert the importance of the communal mission of the institution.
- Administrators must measure those behaviors which are consistent with the mission. If the only mission of the college is teaching, then assessment and effort must be directed toward that goal. If the real mission of the institution is multifaceted then the assessment of the institution's effectiveness must reflect that diversity.

The role and requirements of committee members, i.e., the faculty in most instances, is not as pronounced as the administration's role. Committee members either react to issues brought to them by other faculty or react to a tasking provided them by the administration. In either instance, the committee members' role becomes one of fact finding and research, deliberation, drawing conclusions, and exercising creativity and a spirit of innovation while seeking resolution. That role is shaped by each member's expertise coming to bear collectively on an issue or problem. The members' responsibility for action knows no functional boundaries as it cuts across the organizational chart while seeking information and trying to sort out conflicting views. All activity finally comes to rest on a recommendation that can be generally accepted across the institution. However, the committee's responsibility does not end with the recommendation but with the commitment of seeing that recommendation through to implementation. The committee's role is only completed when the institution takes ownership for the action.

Major Principles of Shared Governance Through Committees

Mutual Respect. This principle refers to the importance of respect for each other. "Respect" is not to be confused with *approval* of another's values or behavior. We can respect people without approving of what they do. Respect, as we use it here, comes very close to the concept of acceptance, defined at length elsewhere (Lemire, 1987). In this case respect or acceptance refers to the belief that others have a right to exist independently and to appreciation of their individual ability to make their own best decisions. *Mutual* respect means that we can expect others to give us consideration and non-interference as long as we continue to focus on the issues being presented.

Individual Participation in Decision Making. This means that when more than one person is involved, that more than one person helps make the decision which influences the group. Such participation assures that each person's opinion is heard and valued. Thus, the group leader's responsibility is to make a deliberate effort to *understand* all points of view presented.

Identify Basic Issues. In cooperative conflict resolution, it is important to identify the basic issues involved. The basic issues, as opposed to the superficial ones, are usually things like:

1. Who is in control?
2. Who is right?
3. Whose values are "superior" or dominant?

These are the kinds of "hidden agendas" (Pfeiffer & Jones, 1973) which are often the core of conflict in disagreements. Examples of this can be found in the case of feminism and minority rights (Lemire, 1987b).

Mutual Agreement. To obtain mutual agreement is probably the most important step in collaborative committee work. We tend to prefer to live by rules that we have helped formulate, and we tend to defy those rules which have been forced upon us. When a situation of mutual agreement occurs, the principles of mutual respect, identifying basic issues, and individual participation in decision-making are already present. Mutual agreement tends to lead to a cooperative rather than competitive resolution of conflict.

Minor Principles of Shared Governance Through Committees

Tangible Effects. The principle of tangible effects refers to the belief that what a person does must have some direct influence on another in order for that person to have legitimate complaint. Smoking cigarettes in public may be a good analogy. Ambient cigarette smoke has a tangible physical effect on nearby non-smokers. The tangible effect is that ambient cigarette smoke is as harmful to non-smokers who breathe it as inhaling is to the smokers themselves (Lemire, 1987c).

Reasonable Limits. Without just and reasonable limits, there would be anarchy. Arbitrary limits are as undesirable as no limits; authoritarianism is no better than permissiveness. A better way to control a situation is to agree upon *reasonable* limits.

Who Owns the Problem? A question of fundamental importance to a cooperative solution is ascertaining ownership of the problem. Often we borrow or create a problem when it actually belongs to someone else. For example, if other persons are angry, their anger is *their* problem. If we create anger or resentment as a response to someone else's anger or resentment, then we borrow their problem.

Situation-Specific Behavior. Situation-specific behavior refers to the importance of interpersonal flexibility and appropriateness. A behavior appropriate in one situation may be quite inappropriate in another situation. An absurd example of wearing a swim suit to a formal ball comes immediately to mind. Thus, in situation-specific behavior, the needs of the situation determine the appropriateness and desirability of a given behavior. Psychologically healthy individuals do things because they need to be done, more than because of rewards, punishments, or interjected guilt. If this was a functional principle operating in our society, there would be no litter on the city streets of our nation. First, littering is an irresponsible form of behavior (reflecting the impulsive belief that "someone else will clean up after me,") and, second, that each individual will pick up litter as they find it, doing so because it needs to be done.

Natural and Logical Consequences. Natural and logical consequences have been described at length in a number of sources (Dreikurs, Grunwald and Pepper, 1971; Dreikurs and Grey, 1968; Dinkmeyer and McKay, 1973). Natural consequences are predictable, unavoidable results of behavior. The natural consequence of not eating is getting hungry. The natural consequence of tipping back in a chair is the chair falling. Logical consequences are more difficult to implement and are sometimes mistaken for punishment. The basic difference between a logical consequence and a punishment is that logical consequences are prearranged results which are logically related to the behavior and occur with the absence of hostility or anger. A good example would be the rule that a person who cannot behave and contribute to the constructive goals of the group may lose the privilege of participating in the group. Logical consequences simply and predictably occur as the expected result of the rule which the group has agreed to make.

Choices and Enforcement of Choices. When groups interact, certain behaviors are prescribed and proscribed. The number of choices available to groups is inherently less than those available to individuals. This is one of the things that makes cooperation so important to the functioning and survival of the group. Contrary to popular opinion, it is not competition but cooperation that makes groups successful. So, when the group agrees that certain choices are or are not available to its members, it must be ready to enforce the choices selected. For example, if the group rule is that disruptive behavior will not be tolerated and contributing behavior will be rewarded, then options for the enforcement of penalties and recognition must be decided. Thus, it may be that group members will be required to physically remove a disrupter if that is the agreed penalty. It is also important to remember to discriminate between consequences, penalties and *punishments,* which some believe to be counter-productive.

Non-Negotiable. When we interact with others, each of us holds certain values which are non-negotiable—they are not subject to easy alteration by the group. Two of the more common non-negotiables in our society would be incest and the prohibition against killing fellow members of the society. In an educational setting, one example would be disruptive behavior in a classroom or laboratory. Disruptive behavior cannot be tolerated if the group is to function well and accomplish its constructive goals. Thus, when a non-negotiable is violated, the predetermined consequences or penalties are generally invoked.

Epilogue

There are many views of how committees work in higher education and varying assessment of their value. Our major premise is if colleges and universities are to work well, power must be shared and the structure in place to assure that happens. We believe that the committee system, usually thought of as an impediment toward progress, is one of the better means of implementing positive change in higher education. We have discussed a number of important issues related to the concept of shared power. The two main groups of principles, as we see it, are the conditions necessary for collaboration and cooperation and the major principle of shared governance in higher education. When both faculty and administration end their adversarial relationship, they begin to focus on the primary missions of higher education—higher order learning. Potential for substantial progress toward mission-essential goals exists only as a result of a unified approach toward problem resolution.

> In higher education we take philosophical structures such as 'mission' and 'vision' for granted. These concepts are implicit to the nature of our work. However, most of us often wonder where our [institutions] are headed. We do not share common goals or sense of common direction. There needs to be an active process initiated by the senior leadership of the university or college. There needs to be an attempt at creating a common goal for the [institution.] (Chaurfournier, 1992)

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By Charles H. Beard

A Call to Action In a Nation *Still* at Risk

The author uses his personal experience of Japanese and American car dealers to introduce the subject of the decline of American quality, noting there is a correlation between our industrial and educational malaise. From the perspective of a community college teacher, the author suggests the following six decisive actions to be taken by other college instructors: (a) overcome the obstacle of denial; (b) focus on real educational priorities; (c) uphold high standards in the classroom; (d) model competency for the students; (e) learn from reforms in business and industry; and (f) support local and national reform efforts.

I OWN TWO CARS. One is a Mazda. The other is a Ford. By coincidence, both cars were taken to their respective dealers for minor repairs during the same week. The two repairs provided a first-hand opportunity to compare local representatives of the companies. There was a clear message in the different manners that they performed. First at the Ford dealer, I was told it was only by a stroke of luck that they could fit my problem into their cramped service schedule. They proceeded to make me feel as though they were doing for me some extraordinary favor to repair my car. By contrast, the Mazda service people almost apologized for the inconvenience that their repair had caused me. They were sympathetic, courteous, and most importantly, they assumed an obligation to fully fix the problem quickly.

A more important difference existed between the two shops. Only the Japanese company proudly displayed letters from customers that expressed appreciation of the quality of the service they received. Writing thank you notes to an auto repair shop is like thanking a dentist for filling a tooth—highly improbable. Yet the Mazda dealer had many to show off. Based on my experience, I can only suppose that my American car dealer never received such letters. While the American company had a hollow jingle in Detroit that affirmed "Quality is Job #1," the Japanese company in my community delivered the real thing to me.

Certainly my recent experience is not isolated. Much evidence has substantiated that the competitive edge of the United States has been dulled in the motorcycle, automotive, consumer electronics, and other important industries. In the face of foreign competition and despite Iacocca's protests, "Made in America" just does not signify unequivocal world class quality any more. Many have bemoaned the half-heartedness that seems to characterize the everyday performance of too many of us Americans in all walks of life.

A Nation Still at Risk

Our industrial and economic malaise has been correlated with a similar decline in our schools. A decade ago, a blue-ribbon commission declared us a "nation at risk." According to them, our students were not studying the right subjects, were not working hard enough, were being pampered by slack standards and taught by ill-prepared teachers. They made the following inflammatory declaration:

> If an unfriendly foreign power had attempted to impose on America the mediocre educational performance that exists today, we might well have viewed it as a act of war (National Committee on Excellence in Education, 1983, p. 1).

The panel soberly warned that if the United States did not set matters right, our economy and social structure would crumble.

Ten years after being forewarned of the nation's jeopardy, according to many, America's students still are not making the grade (Kantrowitz et al., 1993). "According to a Department of Education report, school funding has increased 40 percent (inflation adjusted) since 1982 and the results remain dismal" (Klein, 1992, p. 32). One annual study after another enumerates for us just what the typical American student can not do. For example, Ehrlich (1988) wrote the following:

> It is a worrisome state, although top-ranked U.S. students compare well with their peers in industrialized nations, the rest do worse. One million young people drop out of high school every year. Rates approach 50% in some inner cities. Of the 2.4 million who graduate, as many as 25% cannot read or write at the eight-grade, or 'functionally literate,' level, according to some estimates. Most 17-year-olds in school cannot summarize a newspaper article, write a good letter requesting a job, solve real-life math problems, or follow a bus schedule (p. 9).

This continuing inadequate performance is reminiscent of the horror movies in which the monster keeps getting up after having received what should have been mortal wounds.

Higher education is not exempt from criticism. "Professors on the front lines of undergraduate instruction are less than encouraging" (Zook, 1993, p. A25). It has been estimated that at least half of the new American students entering post secondary education are receiving remedial education. "One might surmise that students unprepared for college at age eighteen will not have acquired a full-fledged 'higher' education four years later" (Finn, 1991, p. 48). Evidence exists that some campuses are conferring degrees on many people whose practical skills are still shaky. One survey indicated that the most highly educated adults in the nation, those with a four-year college degree were unable to state in writing the argument made in a long newspaper column or calculate a tip in a restaurant given the tip percentage and the bill (Finn, 1991).

Yet, many of America's good colleges and universities continue to be the envy of the world. This country's institutions have been flooded with 407,530 students from China, Taiwan, Japan, India, and other foreign countries (Blackman, Schoenthal, & Urguhart, 1992). During my graduate studies in Computer Science, I was in numerous courses where tough technical subjects were taught at American universities to a classroom of students that were predominately foreign born. In some programs in American universities, barely one third of the graduate students in technical fields are American nationals. I suspect that many taxpayers would be irate if they knew the extent that their money was being used to educate these non-Americans. The foreign students should not be blamed for being opportunistic. But the absence of American students that I have witnessed firsthand in scientific and technical fields is alarming.

Furthermore, there is a growing discrepancy between the capabilities of graduates, and the skills that employers seek. "More than half of our young people leave school without the knowledge or foundation required to find and hold a good job," stated a recent report by the U.S. Department of Labor (The Secretary's Commission on Achieving Necessary Skills, 1991). The National Alliance of Business (1990) reported that a majority of personnel officers at some of America's biggest companies must screen more applicants now than five years ago to find qualified candidates for entry-level jobs. Finn (1991, p. 49) concluded the following:

> To persist on our present course is to continue producing high-school graduates who are amiable but ignorant. It is to keep turning many colleges into remedial high schools, and to continue pouring into the job market millions of young people who do not have what it takes to handle the jobs available to them. And this, of course, means continuing as a nation to fall behind our European and Asian allies, enemies, and rivals.

Certainly, there have been efforts for reform. The Russian Sputnik produced a new emphasis on math and science in American schools of the 1960s. At that time, American education responded positively to the perceived national peril.

The current threat to American competitiveness has produced a similar response. O'Neil (1992) acknowledged recent improvements in the schools in the following manner:

> The schools have, in fact, been getting steadily better over the years at a very slow rate, according to most, but not all, of the statistics. The problem is not that schools have gone to hell in a handbasket; it's that the nature of the world economy has changed dramatically in the last 20 or 25 years and schools have not changed with it. If we're going to be a high-wage country, our skill requirements are going to have to go up (p. 19).

The shortcomings in education are not improving fast enough. American schools are making small steps forward while the requirements for entry-level workers in U.S. businesses are leaping beyond the attainment of our graduates. Competitive "high-performance" American work organizations now seek entrants with skills that are uncommon outcomes of our current educational systems. This has provided incentive for some companies to enter into the education business. Motorola, for example, is forced to invest millions of dollars in employee training each year. Half of their money spent on education is used to provide basic skills in reading and arithmetic to undereducated employees.

In the old industrial model, thinking was left to a few managers and mindless doing was left to a multitude of hired hands. But, for the new American competitor, thinking seems to be required throughout the entire production process (Peters & Austin, 1985). While trying to increase productivity to better compete with Japan, Germany and other economic powers, some progressive U.S. companies are moving more decisions and responsibility to the factory floor. Entry-level workers are expected to think on their feet, solve problems that require complex thought, and apply new knowledge to improve their performance.

There is one certainty about the work place of tomorrow. It will be different. It will probably be more competitive, technical, and information intensive. It will require a different kind of education to prepare current students for the 21st century. There will be more machines—robots and computers—doing most of the repetitive, dirty and boring work, and taking on some tasks that require mental speed and calculations (Karen, 1985). People in the work place will have to be increasingly engaged in creative thought and independent judgement. The evidence is overwhelming that tomorrow's economy will produce an extraordinary number of well-paying challenging jobs. However, one must possess the required skills to do those jobs. As we prepare for the 21st century, greater demands for competence will be required of our graduates.

Unless profound change comes quickly, there will be a growing gap between the skilled and unskilled in tomorrow's workforce. The disparity in earnings between young adults with and without a quality education will grow. The forecast for the undereducated will be bleak with opportunities only in low paying dead-end jobs that are interrupted by frequent unemployment. Tragically, the unskilled and the undereducated will command salaries that match their value in an information oriented society—very, very low. In the future, there will be many good jobs that demand a high degree of competence. "The United States does not presently have the human resources to fill them" (Naisbitt & Aburdene, 1990, p. 42).

A Call to Action

As an instructor in a community college, there have been times that I've felt as though I was being sucked into a whirlpool. All my colleagues seem aware that our educational system is going downstream. But many teachers like myself, who are right in the midst of the problem, often feel enormous helplessness to influence any significant change. After experiencing enough berating of our profession and personal hand-wringing, it now seems to me that there are several positive actions that fellow teachers can take to reverse these trends in some sectors of higher education.

At least six reactions to our nation still "at risk" seem highly pertinent to the community college. The improvement of our colleges calls for the following urgent and decisive replies:

- overcome the obstacle of denial.
- focus on real educational priorities.
- uphold high standards in the classroom.
- model competency for our students.
- learn from the reforms in business and industry.
- support local and national reform efforts.

Suggested Actions

Action 1

One of the barriers to improving our educational system is denial. Many agree that the nation's schools are experiencing some sort of educational meltdown, while simultaneously believing that *their* local institution is doing quite well (Finn, 1991). This very human tendency is dubbed the "Lake Woebegon effect," (a place where all of the children are above average). The fantasy results when one's alma mater becomes enshrined in a fog of well-wishes. Despite evidence to the contrary, some tend to believe that in *their* school all is well and that the real problem exists elsewhere. Certainly, there are differences among schools. Some are functioning better than others. Yet, there is room for improvement everywhere.

The resistance from some instructors and administrators to make changes in higher education is analogous to the same sort of opposition in industry. Auto executives in Detroit shrugged off pressures to change in the early 1970s. Despite the consumer's plea, they ignored the public demand for cheaper, smaller, more fuel-efficient cars. High-level bureaucrats must have believed that Americans would always prefer big and expensive gas-guzzlers. Our auto industry has been playing "catch-up" ever since. U.S. schools followed the same path. We have been out-paced by international competition in education from other industrialized nations. Some college professors, like alienated factory workers, have resisted efforts to make schools more productive. Now, there is neither time nor energy available to waste by arguing that things really are not so bad.

Action 2

Another suggestion is to maintain a clear focus on the real problem in education—the improvement of learning. The community college reflects the society it serves. When the society is askew, so are the schools. It is no wonder that there are so many peripheral issues and activities in the schools to distract us. Trivial fads, non-curricular issues, and pet peeves can consume us all. It is not uncommon to find, on any campus, those teachers who still believe that the greatest problem in education is gum-chewing in the classroom. To meet our current challenge, a higher vision must be shared by all.

We are in the midst of an international economic struggle. The stakes are high and the consequences will affect us all. Hopefully, our students will not be "foot soldiers" in this conflict. But, there is no question—they will be the "brain soldiers." The education we are providing will be their greatest weapon (or weakness) that they will utilize to confront the future. For us to win this war, teachers must be unified in purpose and action. *Therefore, we need to teach as though our national welfare was dependent on the high quality performance of our students.* To be distracted by lesser school issues is to only rearrange deck chairs on the Titanic.

Action 3

One of the basic findings of both educational research and common sense is that "Most young people learn pretty much what they are obligated to learn by parents and teachers—and in matters academic, not a great deal more" (Finn, 1991, p. 51). Therefore, to bring about educational reform it is imperative for community college teachers to uphold high academic standards in their classrooms.

A substantial amount of research has established the notion that what instructors expect of their students is usually what they get (Orlich et al., 1985). Yet, to elevate the standards in a college classroom is easier said than done. Probably, most teachers do wrestle with the personal dilemma of providing both nurture and challenge for their students. Admittedly, the fine line between these two opposing goals is elusive and highly situational for each student. Yet, in many schools, the balance has tipped too far, too long, and by too many, towards the easy way. Low expectations, mediocre performance, and inflated grades have been a common result.

Many instructors have the notion that they would like to do more with their students in the classroom. But, some feel constrained by the *status quo*. It is naive to believe that all of their individual attempts to raise expectations will result in the storybook ending of Jamie Escalante in *Stand and Deliver*. Mr. Escalante wound up with a classroom of high performing and appreciative high school students. But some isolated college teachers who demand more of students may in turn receive higher dropout and failure rates, lower student evaluations, as well as disdain from their administration. But extreme circumstances require unprecedented actions! Until a widespread cross disciplinary lifting of expectations occurs at an institutional level, it may be necessary for courageous educators to pay that price.

Action 4

If we desire more competent students, community college teachers should model the behavior they hope to inspire in others. Primarily, instructors should remain competent in their disciplines. To do so, could require reading current literature, attending seminars, taking courses, continuing research, or being engaged in other expressions of true "life long" learning. Undoubtedly, this hunger for learning is an attitude that we continue to bring to the classroom or leave behind at our own graduation.

Other kinds of competencies should also be modeled by teachers. If we want students to become better writers, we should in turn show students examples of our own writing. The same is true in regard to math and science competencies. It seems that one of the reasons that students are deficient may be because they seldom witness their teachers *doing* significant work in these fields. Technological competency is similar. If teachers want students to utilize computers more, the teachers need to demonstrate roles that computers can play in their own work. Personal examples are a powerful, yet often overlooked, means of communicating to students those things we really value.

Action 5

Another recommendation for educators is to learn lessons from progressive corporations. Schools have traditionally followed the path forged by their contemporary industrial counterparts. Yet today, older industrial models are changing. To remain competitive, some organizations are making major changes in the way they do business. Focus on total quality management, restructuring to a sleek organizational structure, formation of high performance work-team relationships, and decentralization of responsibility are just some of the characteristics of these new organizations. As we move rapidly towards the 21st century, many corporations have recognized that a major paradigm shift is needed in the midst of their organizations. Klein (1992) commented on the difference between the old and new industrial paradigms:

> . . . the signal apparatus of the information age is the computer network: flexible, fast, decentralized, customized. The industrial-age analog was the assembly line: centralized, standardized, inflexible. The challenge is to make schools (and other bureaucracies) less like assembly lines and more like computer networks (p. 32).

Yet, as colleges are dragged along into this new way of operating, instructors must assume new roles. They must be willing to question old assumptions, make more significant policy decisions, develop new collaborative work relationships, and assume new responsibility for the final outcome in their classrooms.

Action 6

Community college teachers are not alone in their concerns. Education reform is a hot topic. We should recognize that efforts to improve the system are occurring in a grassroots fashion throughout the country. It is obvious that never before have more people been as interested in correcting the deficiencies in the schools. Parents, business leaders, politicians, and others are working together in an unprecedented manner in many different projects. Each day, it seems there is another plan that expresses a genuine public outcry for improvement. Real reform does seem to be occurring slowly, community by community and school by school. Undoubtedly many of these changes will result in long lasting improvement.

Educators have a responsibility to stand shoulder to shoulder with other reformers in these efforts. Our self interests, no matter how comfortable we are in our current mess, need to be superseded by national interests. College teachers have a major contribution to offer. They should provide their first-hand expertise and leadership to this reform process. However, if we do not join in, it seems our absence would become irrelevant. The broad and sweeping public demand for educational change will proceed with or without the collaboration of classroom instructors.

Conclusion

Our community colleges could learn a lot from my local Mazda dealer. They seem consumed with a desire for excellence in their service and products. Yet, this principle is not inherently Japanese—but has formed part of the American ethos for over two centuries.

Apparently, what has made the difference at Mazda is not even foreign ownership. Ironically, nearly 30 percent of the Mazda company is owned by our domestic Ford Motor Company. The upper management at both companies, in Tokyo and Detroit, share a common concern for quality. Other factors besides the edicts of major stockholders are responsible for Mazda's local distinction. It must be the case that neither car dealerships nor schools change because of a fiat from a remote agency or administration. Instead, a culture of excellence must permeate the local organization from top to bottom and culminate at the point where the goods and services are delivered. As a result, our schools do not need more slogans or national decrees. They do need a shared commitment from all local school personnel. We should expect superior educational results only when everyone, from the janitor to the CEO, begin to work together as a team to improve the performance of the college.

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By James A. Eison

Setting the Stage: Introducing the Teaching Portfolio Concept to One's Campus

The author explains how faculty developers can help instructors become more reflective about their teaching and more skillful in documenting their teaching performance by preparing teaching portfolios. Six lessons learned through ongoing "work in progress" at the University of South Florida are described briefly in the hope that they might prove useful to individuals involved in similar efforts on other campuses.

ENCOURAGING FACULTY members to prepare a teaching portfolio is a relatively new and especially exciting way department chairpersons, academic administrators, and faculty developers can help instructors become more reflective about their teaching and more skillful in documenting their teaching performance. For this reason, the Center for Teaching Enhancement at the University of South Florida (USF) has attempted to introduce use of the teaching portfolio to both administrators and faculty. Six lessons learned through ongoing "work in progress" are described briefly in the hope that they might prove useful to individuals involved in similar efforts on other campuses.

Lesson One: Begin by educating yourself.

Knowing that effective faculty development must begin with oneself, in my efforts to move from the stage of "initially curious and interested" to the "more knowledgeable and committed" stage of professional expertise, I found it is especially helpful to read the limited number of published articles on the topic (see references) and to listen to leading teaching portfolio proponents present sessions and respond to participant questions at the annual conferences of professional organizations such as AAHE (e.g., Edgerton, 1991), POD (e.g., Millis, 1991; Seldin and Annis, 1992) as well as at Miami University's 12th Annual Lilly Conference on College Teaching (e.g., Firestone, 1992; Millis, 1992).

Lesson Two: Share written materials with relevant faculty and administrative groups.

The teaching portfolio concept was introduced "gently but persistently" to our campus by the Center for Teaching Enhancement in several campus contexts during discussions about faculty development and evaluation. For example, encouraging faculty to create teaching portfolios was described in a workshop entitled "Promoting Teaching Excellence: Six Modest Ways Department Chairpersons Can Help" and presented during a retreat attended by department chairpersons and senior academic administrators (e.g., provost, vice-provost, etc.). Copies of the workshop handout were distributed also to chairpersons not in attendance and to college and campus deans. The center similarly distributed article reprints describing the use of teaching portfolios (e.g., Seldin and Annis, 1990; 1991/1992) to the University of South Florida Undergraduate Teaching Evaluation Task Force. The Task Force later described the creation of teaching portfolios in a report to the provost as,"the most promising method of documenting teaching competence (p. 12)." In addition, teaching portfolios were described as one way to document effectiveness in the classroom to faculty participants in the center's annual ten-day summer workshop entitled "Involving Students: Using Active Learning Strategies in University Classes."

Lesson Three: Allow ample time for the initial idea to germinate and introduce any calls for change strategically.

Researchers who have studied the implementation of educational innovation have noted that faculty are often resistant to new ideas or calls for change (e.g., House, 1974: Stevens and Eison, 1991). For example, Lindquist (1974) observed that "The obstacles to academic innovation are many and great and the motivation appears weak (p. 341)." More recently, Johnston and Johnston (in press) noted that "There are few absolute truths in education but one of the truest is that innovations are hard to launch and more difficult to sustain." Needless to say, the reasons why faculty commonly resist change are many.

Of special significance to the introduction of the teaching portfolio concept, I believe, are the host of personal fears and concern that faculty almost universally express towards any form of teaching evaluation. It is also likely that conversations about teaching portfolios will stimulate increased complaints among some faculty that "since it is scholarly research and not good teaching that is rewarded on our campus," activities such as portfolio preparation are a "waste of valuable time that might otherwise be devoted to one's research."

While the portfolio concept itself may be intuitively appealing to some faculty, Ornstein and Hunkins (1988) have reported that "Teachers frequently view change as just signaling more work—something else to add on to an already overloaded schedule for which little or no time is allotted. Usually, no extra money or reward is earmarked for the extra work either (p. 69)." Further, House (1974) has observed that "People are often shocked that teachers should require tangible incentives to try a new innovation (p. 73)."

Given these considerations, and the fact that USF faculty have not received salary increases in two years, the idea of using the portfolio approach to document and evaluate teaching was initially introduced by the center as a timely idea worthy of discussion rather than as a call for immediate implementation. Therefore, resistance in many faculty quarters was minimized.

Proponents of the teaching portfolio concept are also well advised to demonstrate great patience. As noted by Benjamin Franklin over 200 years ago "To get the bad customs of a country changed and new ones, though better, introduced, it is necessary to first remove the prejudices of the people, enlighten their ignorance, and convince them that their interests will be promoted by the proposed changes; and this is not the work of a day." Few practices in higher education are more controversial to faculty and involve a greater number of "bad customs" than our teaching evaluation practices. If they are to succeed, advocates for change and improvement in existing faculty evaluation practices must engage in thoughtful planning and employ skillful implementation strategies.

Lesson Four: Provide a brief consciousness-raising program for academic leaders.

Cochran (1989), in a compelling text entitled *ACT: Administrative Commitment to Teaching*, described the important leadership role that academic administrators can play in creating a campus environment in which teaching effectiveness is assessed, evaluated, improved, and rewarded. Given that many administrators and department chairpersons would be more likely to listen to a short scholarly presentation than to read a text by the same person, two nationally prominent teaching portfolio proponents, Drs. Peter Seldin and Linda Annis, were invited to campus to make 90-minute presentations during a special meeting of department chairpersons and to participants at the deans' retreat. Prior to these sessions, copies of Seldin's (1991) text were distributed to all department chairpersons, college and campus deans, and members of the provost's staff. During the sessions, chairpersons and deans were encouraged to begin discussing teaching portfolios with their faculty; subsequent informal conversations with many of these individuals suggest that a growing number have done so.

When planning an initial consciousness-raising program for either faculty or administrators, it is helpful to directly address anticipated sources of faculty resistance. Rogers (1983, pp. 15-16), for example, has identified five characteristics that can influence the successful adoption of innovation; discussion of these elements might be incorporated into one's consciousness-raising programs:

- *relative advantage*—the degree to which an innovation is perceived as better than the idea it supersedes
- *compatibility*—the degree to which an innovation is perceived as being consistent with existing values, past experiences, and needs of potential adopters
- *complexity*—the degree to which an innovation is perceived as difficult to understand and use
- *trialability*—the degree to which an innovation may be experimented with on a limited bases
- *observability*—the degree to which the results of an innovation are visible to others.

Lesson Five: Follow the initial consciousness-raising activities with skill-building workshops.

While a cynical observer once claimed that "there is no crisis to which academics won't respond with a seminar," other observers of contemporary higher education (e.g., Erickson, 1986) have reported that workshops are perhaps the most common form of professional development activity found on college and university campuses. When skillfully planned and delivered, a teaching portfolio workshop can (a) enable faculty to share ideas and experiences with colleagues from other disciplines, (b) introduce participants to current information and research on the evaluation of teaching that they would not be likely to locate on their own, (c) provide an opportunity for faculty to produce a personal plan of action for portfolio development, and (d) assist participants in identifying knowledgeable peers who might review their initial draft.

Considerable writing and research (e.g., Eison, Janzow, and Bonwell, 1990; Bonwell and Eison, 1991) and extensive personal practice have convinced me that when conducting such programs, it is vital faculty participants be actively involved in addressing workshop goals rather than being "lectured to." In short, facilitators should involve participants in doing things (e.g., reading, writing, talking, working in pairs or in groups.)

Appendix 1 presents a DRAFT description for a "One-Day Teaching Portfolio Workshop" that will be pilot tested by the Center for Teaching Enhancement later this spring; it is anticipated that a revised program will be repeated on one or more occasions during the summer and fall semesters. It is also anticipated that a small and select cadre of faculty members representing each of USF's colleges and campuses will receive advanced training to enable them to become facilitators of subsequent programs within their units.

Lesson Six: Provide follow-up activities to these workshops.

As noted astutely by House (1974), "As the flow of blood is essential to human life, so direct personal contact is essential to the propagation of innovation, and by tracing the flow of personal contact and personal influence, one can chart the likely course of innovation (p. 6)." Fullan and Pomfret's (1977) review of research on curriculum and instruction implementation similarly concluded that "If there is one finding that stands out in our review, it is that effective implementation of innovations requires time, personal interaction and contacts, inservice training, and other forms of people-based support" (cited in Ornstein and Hunkins, 1988, p. 391). Individual follow-up contacts with workshop members, opportunities for peer-editing of first-draft writing, and postworkshop reunions of participants can all contribute to the project's success.

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Dr. James A. Eison is the Director for the Center for Teaching Enhancement at the University of South Florida in Tampa, Florida.

Appendix 1

Draft Plans for a One-Day Teaching Portfolio Workshop

Teaching Portfolios: Why and How
9:00-10:15 a.m.

A well designed teaching portfolio is one means by which a faculty member might display his or her recent teaching accomplishments for maximum impact on personnel decisions such as the awarding of tenure, promotions, merit pay, and/or teaching awards. This session will provide an opportunity for participants to examine why an increasing number of colleges and universities have started using teaching portfolios as an integral component of their faculty development and evaluation programs and to formulate a portfolio preparation plan.

Using Student Evaluation Data to Demonstrate and Improve Teaching Effectiveness
10:30-11:45 a.m.

The most commonly used measure of teaching effectiveness throughout higher education is course and instructor ratings provided by students. This session will critically examine (a) what the research says and what faculty should know about student ratings of instruction, (b) how one might design student feedback forms and procedures for use in a teaching portfolio, and (c) how to derive meaningful interpretations of both quantitative and qualitative student evaluation data.

Using Peer Observation and/or Videotaping to Demonstrate and Improve Teaching Effectiveness
1:00-2:15 p.m.

In addition to student evaluation data, statements from knowledgeable colleagues who have observed your teaching, and/or a classroom videotape with self-analysis, are also potential components of a teaching portfolio. Useful data of this type, however, can be more difficult to obtain and interpret than student surveys. For this reason, this session will examine strategies that can be used by participants to include information based directly upon one's performance in the university classroom in a teaching portfolio.

Creating a Teaching Portfolio: Data Collection and Portfolio Preparation
2:30-4:00 p.m.

Preparing a teaching portfolio involves far more than simply "putting a pile of stuff into a large three-ring binder." In that each teaching portfolio represents an individual's unique teaching activities, accomplishments, and plans for personal/professional growth, there is no single formula or recipe for portfolio development. This session, therefore, will explore strategies for data collection and portfolio preparation. Particular attention will be paid to such complex issues as (a) thoughtfully assembling examples and reporting evidence of actual teaching performance rather that relying *solely* upon what students and colleagues have to say about one's teaching and (b) carefully preparing reflective statements which offer readers a concise description of both what one does in the classroom and why.

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Total Quality Management in Higher Education Examined

The following book reviews involve titles of interest to professional development practitioners. Part I of the series appeared in the last issue of the Journal.

Total Quality Management: Part II

***Using Deming to Improve Quality in Colleges and Universities*, by Robert A. Cornesby, et al. Madison, Wisconsin: Magna Publications, Inc., 1992, 113 pp. $39.95.**

Reviewed by
John Paul Eddy

The entire higher education community world-wide owes a debt to Deming for his famous "Fourteen Points on TQM" that have revolutionized all kinds of institutions, organizations and groups ranging from business to education. This important book uses Deming's classic fourteen points in fourteen chapters that explain the points in terms of higher education applications. The authors have done an excellent job in presenting Deming's philosophy as it can be applied to higher education.

They correctly point out how higher education's concept of customers differ from the business sector in relation to the usual "repeat customers" — although some students do repeat by getting more courses beyond degree programs and even by getting two or more degrees from the same university. Thus, students, alumni and employers have traditional customer characteristics to some degree.

The authors have a fundamental belief that if a higher education unit adopts the Deming philosophy improvements will be produced in personnel morale, pride of accomplishments and operational efficiency. This approach, the authors contend, will cause more students, alumni, employees and others to support the college or university with money, material and morale. Consequently, the authors strongly hold to the Deming model for improving quality, competitive positioning and public acceptance for institutional success.

Twelve case studies provide the readers with a chance to test how they can apply TQM to higher education situations. These case studies cover such subjects as chain of command, space allocation, faculty development, geographical axis, preregistration process, faculty tenure, extension center, textbook shortages, parents' day, campus ambulance service, and faculty hiring procedures.

A reference list of over 60 books and articles are given at the end of the book. However, the most current of these have 1988 publication dates — they range from 1959 to 1988.

In this volume, valuable insights are found such as follows:

1. Counterproductive exhortations fail to develop good teamwork.
2. Fear is a destructive agent which impedes work quality and personnel morale.
3. How to develop a healthy spirit of teamwork is explained.
4. What persons need to be involved in TQM programs and where support for these programs could come from is offered.

The book is a must in everyone's library. The volume offers a practical way to use Deming's approach in a higher education setting. Unfortunately, no research studies are available on the success of this approach in colleges and universities that may be involved with Deming's work.

Total Quality Management: Part III

***Total Quality Improvement Guide for Institutions of Higher Education*, by Robert Cornesby and Samuel McCool. Madison, Wisconsin: Magna Publications, Inc., 1993, 162 pp. $34.95.**

Reviewed by
John Paul Eddy

This book provides a guide for Total Quality Management (TQM) for colleges and universities. It seems to be the fad and fashion of our society to change the last word in TQM to another so as to make different applications. For example, others call TQM "Total Quality Learning" while still others would use the word "teaching" to substitute for "management," and so forth.

The volume is divided into:

1. *Section I: The Steps*, has four chapters covering problem identification, team forming, analyzing courses and suggestions for implementation of programs in higher education.
2. *Section II: The Tools*, has a set of topics treated as affinity and cause-effect diagram; control, run and flow-charts; force field analysis; histogram; nominal group process; operational definition; parieto, relations, scatter, scenario, and systematic diagrams. These can applied step-by-step in higher education.

3. A reference list of 15 books that range in publishing dates from 1939 to 1991. Ten of these books have been published from 1988 to 1991.
4. An appendices section provides materials from "formula-driven budgeting" to a "two-plus-two articulation agreement."

TQM is described as a "management-driven philosophy that encourages everyone in the organization to know the organizational mission and to adopt a quality philosophy to continuously improve on how the work is done to meet the satisfaction of the customer." The authors point out how higher education personnel need to follow the general principles of TQM from identifying dysfunctional processes and systems to recommending corrections in order for the approach to work effectively. Higher education administrators must be effective in the skills of listening, analyzing, critical thinking, and decision-making for appropriate implemention of programs to make TQM work.

The authors make a strong case for TQM implementation — from increasing the quality of education to decreasing the cost of delivering education. TQM is sanctioned as a philosophy and process that could best meet the future demands of higher education institutions facing limited resources, diverse student populations, staffing difficulties and increased global issues.

This book is a necessary purchase for the progressive and enlightened higher education administrator and/or leader. An important value of this book is that throughout its pages pertinent case studies from college and university settings are presented. Some of these are hypothetical and some actually did occur. One would like to see more of these case studies drawn from actual applications within higher education. Once again, the book lacks research studies on the successful implementation of TQM in American higher education. A book with research findings needs to be written.

Dr. John Paul Eddy is a Professor Higher Education at the University of North Texas, Denton, Texas.

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Chalk Dust

By Linc. Fisch

Seven Qualities of Highly Effective Teachers

By themselves, these seven qualities may not be sufficient conditions for teaching excellence, but they may be pretty close to essential.

The number *seven* seems to have magical properties that attract people to it.

The universe was created in seven days, according to *Genesis*, and we now have seven days in a week. There are seven theological and cardinal virtues (faith, hope, charity, prudence, justice, fortitude, temperance). Likewise, there are seven deadly sins (pride, covetousness, lust, anger, gluttony, envy, sloth). The liberal arts of the middle ages numbered seven, chunked into a quadrivium (arithmetic, geometry, astronomy, music) and a trivium (grammar, rhetoric, logic). And today, fortunate faculty members may be granted sabbatical leaves.

On a more mundane plane, seven is the most probably sum when rolling two dice. Seven digits (such as a telephone number) are generally all that most people can store in short-term memory. And if you want your slide or overhead projector transparency to be readable, don't put more than seven lines on it, with each line no longer than seven words.

So it's not unexpected that an American Association for Higher Education commission focused on "Seven Principles of Good Practice in Undergraduate Education," and Steven Covey wrote a best seller *Seven Habits of Highly Effective People*. I even read a recent journal article by an off-beat writer: "Seven Principles of Teaching Seldom Taught in Grad School" (see Chalkdust, *J. Staff, Prog., & Org. Dev.*, Vol. 10, No. 4, Winter 1992, pp. 217-218).

Seven is not quite in the same number league with the *three* of Liberté-égalité-fraternité, but it's a good cut or two above the *ten* of David Letterman's lists. Propelled by this mystical momentum of the number, here are my nominations for qualities of highly effective teachers—seven in number, of course.

1. Highly effective teachers *care*. They care about their students, their work, and themselves. They treat others with dignity; they respect others' integrity. They give high priority to benefitting others. They af-

firm others' strengths and beings; it's a kind of love.

2. Highly effective teachers *share*. They share their knowledge, insights, and viewpoints with others. Their willingness to share is a way of life for them. They don't withhold information for personal gain.

3. Highly effective teachers *learn*. They continually seek truth and meaning. They seek to discover new ideas and insights. They reflect on their experiences and incorporate the learning therefrom into their lives. They are willing to upgrade their skills. They continue growing and developing throughout their lives.

4. Highly effective teachers *create*. They are willing to try the new and untested, to take risks for worthy educational outcomes. Anything worth doing is worth failing at. They are not discouraged by an occasional failure; they reframe the error as an opportunity to do better as a result of the experience.

5. Highly effective teachers *believe*. They have faith in students. They trust students and are willing to grant them freedom and responsibility. They hold high expectations for their students, as well as for themselves.

6. Highly effective teachers *dream*. They have a vision of success. They are driven by an image of excellence, the best that their innate abilities allow. They always seek to improve, never being content with just "getting by" in teaching or in any other endeavor.

7. Highly effective teachers *enjoy*. Teaching is not just employment to them; it is their Work. They throw themselves into it with vigor. They gain major satisfaction and joy from it. And that joy often infects their students.

While this particular set of qualities is my own compilation, I've found in workshops where we've examined what is meant by "good teaching" that these qualities are prominently mentioned. By themselves they may not be sufficient conditions for teaching excellence, but they may be pretty close to essential.

Surely, you say, there are other qualities that should make the list. What about critical thinking, positive attitude, or calm equanimity, for example? What about patience? Well, certainly a case could be made for all of these—and others, I'm sure.

But eleven (though the next prime number after seven) is not such a magical number. And keeping practicality in mind, it's harder for one to retain more than seven in memory.

So if you can keep in mind *care, share, learn, create, believe, dream,* and *enjoy,* you may keep them actively in practice. And that will move you toward becoming a highly effective teacher.

Linc. Fisch does off-beat writing at his home in Lexington, Kentucky. He has had 30-some years of experience in teaching and other assignments in higher education.

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Developing a Teacher Short Course

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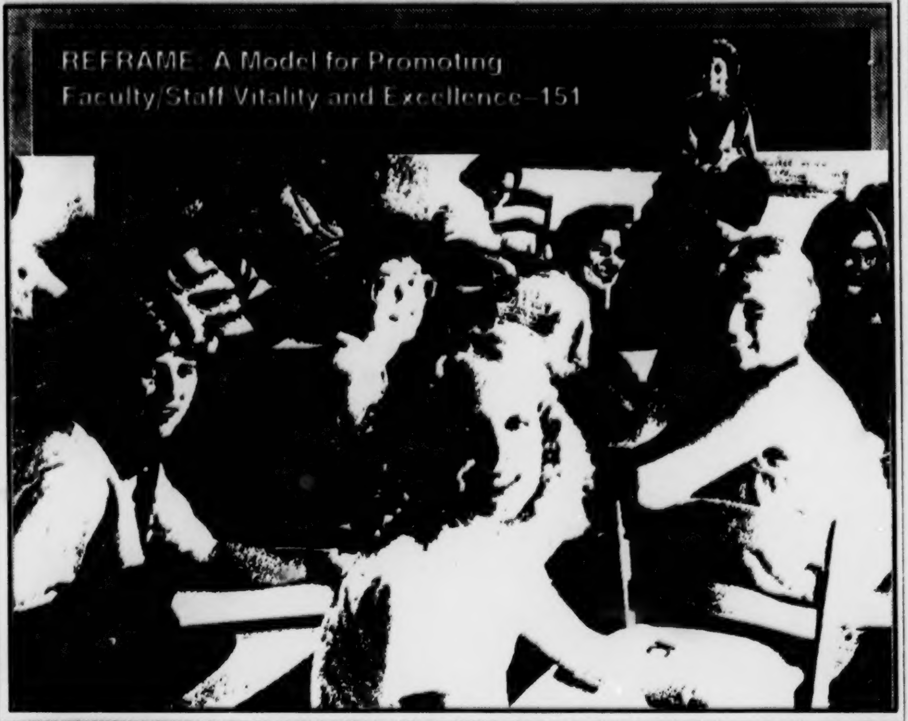

REFRAME: A Model for Promoting Faculty/Staff Vitality and Excellence–151

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Helping TAs to Help Themselves: A Model Training System Using a Peer TA 145
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New Relationships Between Universities, Community Colleges, and Technical Colleges 161
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Using Computers Interactively to Overcome Resistance to Learning About Theory 167
By Thomas J. Keefe & John H. Newman

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For Our Readers

"On Teaching" is New Department

In the past two years since I became editor of *JSPOD*, a number of people have indicated they would like for us to have a department with articles on teaching that they could give to faculty members. So, with this issue we are initiating such a new department on page 185.

As you will see from the credits, many of the articles in this section come from the wonderful newsletters published by faculty and instructional developers for their campus communities. We appreciate their willingness to allow us to distribute these articles to a wider audience and we sincerely hope you will find them informative and useful to you as you work with faculty and TAs. If you publish a local newsletter and have an article you would like to submit for this department, please do so.

Please let me know what you think of this department by writing to me c/o New Forums Press or by sending me a message by e-mail (k.lewis@utxvm.cc.utexas.edu).

Thank you!

Karron G. Lewis, Editor

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The Professional and Organizational Development Network in Higher Education is a very welcomed addition to the list of organizations choosing to be affiliated with *The Journal of Staff, Program, & Organization Development.*

Members of this fine organization have for years submitted excellent contributions to the Journal and several members can always be found serving on the Editorial Board of the Journal.

Readers are encouraged to write or call me for information about the POD Network or any of the other Affiliate Organizations noted on page 130 of this issue. From time to time you will find announcements about the activities of these organizations published in this Journal.

Academic Year Adopted for Journal

With this issue an adjustment has been made in the publication schedule for the Journal, changing from a calendar-year to an academic-year program. Issues now will be numbered as follows: No. 1, Summer, mailed in July; No. 2, Fall, mailed in October; No. 3, Winter, mailed in January; and, No. 4, Spring, mailed in April. The new schedule allows mailings to occur at more convenient times of the year and conincides with the addition of new departments. The times at which renewal notices are sent out have also been adjusted.

Thank you for your interest in and support of this publication!

Douglas O. Dollar, Publisher

By James Paradiso

Developing, Implementing, and Assessing a Great Teachers Short Course for Faculty Development

This article describes a Great Teachers Short Course for full-time faculty which was sponsored during the fall of 1992 by the Professional Growth Center of the College of Lake County. The course's preparation, administration, and assessment are detailed within the broader context of the Center's mission, organization, and programs. Reflections about unexpected events, strategies for refining the course, and references are also included.

DIFFICULTIES INHERENT IN defining superior teaching performance (Allen, 1987), methods for sharing information about excellence in university teaching (Stillion, 1991), and findings of follow-up studies of master teacher seminars (Smith, 1983) are described in the literature. The Coming Events section of *The Chronicle of Higher Education* often announces great and master teachers seminars such as Hampden-Sydney College's Virginia Master Teachers Seminar in July of 1993 and El Paso Community College's Annual Southwestern Seminar for Great Teaching in October of 1992. The purpose of this article is to describe another format for faculty development: a Great Teachers Short Course.

The Professional Growth Center

The mission of the Professional Growth Center of the College of Lake County is to assist in developing and enhancing the skills, techniques, and applied crafts of adjunct and full-time faculty, classified staff, and specialists. To that end, the Center conducts workshops for adjunct fac-

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ulty, brown bag discussions, and short courses for full-time faculty. It also sponsors professional travel, applied research, special events, and instructional consultants.

The Dean of Instruction for Transfer, Adult, and Continuing Education selects the coordinator of the Center from full-time faculty with the approval of the Center's advisory committee. The advisory committee is made up of representatives from each of the college's academic divisions, classified staff, and specialists. The coordinator reports to the dean, receives one-half release time, and meets with the advisory committee regularly. All full-time faculty with at least three years of service are eligible to become instructional consultants. Written applications include overall rationale, general objective, specific objectives, tactics, timetable, control mechanisms, methods of sharing outcomes, and desired compensation of three hours of release time or the cash equivalent. The coordinator and advisory committee choose two instructional consultants each semester. In general, the instructional consultant is responsible for planning, implementing, and controlling a demand-satisfying interdisciplinary academic program for full-time faculty.

The Center's ongoing faculty surveys had identified new teaching techniques as a high priority need for full-time faculty. My informal survey of full-time faculty, enrolled in a Center-sponsored Classroom Management short course during the spring of 1992, confirmed the need to articulate the nature of great teaching and learning. Thus, during the spring of 1992, my fifth and last semester as coordinator of the Center, I applied for the position of instructional consultant for the fall semester of 1992. My proposal was to develop, implement, and assess a Great Teachers Short Course for full-time faculty in return for three hours of release time during the semester.

As with other short courses, faculty participants would receive one hour of graduate credit, leading to a salary increment, for completing the course.

The course's general objective was to identify, analyze, explicate, and explore the critical mass of great teaching and great teachers. Specific objectives included

1. providing a formal but non-threatening setting for introspection and self-assessment of individual teaching techniques and styles;
2. encouraging faculty to explore the limits of their disciplines and specializations in search of transferable strategies, tactics, and assessment tools for enhancing the teaching/learning dynamic; and
3. providing an opportunity for cross-fertilization of ideas among faculty with diverse educational backgrounds and classroom experiences.

Course Overview

Representing six academic divisions, sixteen faculty who registered for the course were polled to determine mutually convenient attendance times and days. As a result, the course was scheduled to begin during the fourth week of the semester and to meet from 2 p.m. to 4 p.m. on Mondays and Wednesdays for four consecutive weeks: a total of 8 sessions and 16 contact hours. Table 1 shows my general plan for the 8 sessions.

Participants were required to turn in a final written report within two weeks of the eighth session. There was a one-miss-only attendance policy, and all sessions were videotaped. Table 2 shows the evaluation form which participants completed at the end of the fourth session.

TABLE 1
General Plan

Session 1	Explain syllabus, administer and discuss participants' information sheet, distribute assigned readings, and introduce the Dean of Instruction who positions course objectives within the broader context of teaching/learning theory and practice.
Sessions 2 - 7	Outstanding faculty explain when, how, why, and where they do what they do to facilitate the teaching/learning process followed by a discussion about the extent to which participants might incorporate, integrate, or blend into their classes each presenter's remarks with ideas gleaned from assigned readings. Administer mid-course evaluation at the end of the fourth session.
Session 8	Participants' preliminary oral reports on their perceived value of the course. Wrap up with thoughts for further inquiry, and administer final course evaluation.

TABLE 2
Evaluation Form

Mid-Course Evaluation
GREAT TEACHERS SHORT COURSE
Fall, 1992

Please indicate whether you Strongly Agree (SA), Agree (A), Have No Opinion (NO), Disagree (D), or Strongly Disagree (SD) with the first three statements. Then, answer questions 4 - 7, as required. Thank you.

1. So far, this short course *has satisfied* my goals, objectives, and expectations. SA A NO D SD
2. So far, this short course *has done* what I suggested it should do to satisfy my needs. SA A NO D SD
3. So far, this short course has not done what I suggested it should not do to satisfy my needs. SA A NO D SD
4. Jim, just between you and me, this short course______________________________
5. I believe that meeting with a group of students would increase the value of this short course for me. YES NO
6. We should meet with students for __________ minutes.
   a. 0 b. 30 c. 45 d. 60
7. We should meet with students during ______________.
   a. the eighth and last scheduled session, Wednesday, October 7th.
   b. a ninth session, Monday, October 12th.

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Preparations and Questions to Consider

My organizational work began during the summer: identifying and scheduling presenters, searching for reading assignments, reserving a classroom, securing honoraria for presenters, preparing to videotape, constructing participants' information sheets and course evaluation forms, developing a class list, and duplicating handouts. All organizational tasks were important; but, the first, identifying outstanding faculty/presenters, had to be done most prudently, diplomatically, and judiciously.

How could I judge one faculty more outstanding, more worthy of presenting, than another? The answer was clear: I couldn't and wouldn't. Fortunately, my college and a neighboring community college, Oakton, confer outstanding faculty awards annually.

Opened in 1969, my college offers degrees and certificates in a cross-section of career and transfer programs. In the spring of 1993, its enrollment was 15418 students with 187 full-time and 490 part-time faculty. Its 24th graduating class consisted of 879 students; 55% were enrolled in transfer programs preparing them for further education at four-year colleges and universities. Graduates ranged in age from 19 to 63; 58 % were female. Oakton Community College, located in Des Plaines, Illinois, opened in the fall of 1970 and offers degrees and certificates in a comparable array of programs. Its enrollment is slightly greater and its faculty population is somewhat smaller than my school's. Both schools are accredited by the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools.

I invited all four faculty, who received my college's outstanding faculty award, to make presentations. Three of the four accepted my invitation; the fourth was "uncomfortable with the role I'd cast for him." The Senior Director of Institutional Research, Curriculum, and Strategic Planning at Oakton provided the names of faculty who received its Ray Hartstein awards. I invited Oakton faculty who, along with my school's presenters, would provide a cross-section of disciplines: humanities, physical science, business, mathematics, and social science. The three faculty I invited from Oakton accepted immediately. Incidentally, the Professional Growth Center's compensation policy allowed me to offer a $60 honorarium to my faculty and $100 to Oakton's.

What leadership style should I adopt? I understood from another short course I taught (Paradiso, 1987) that college faculty are informed, impatient, and unforgiving. Telling college faculty how to refine their instructional techniques in terms of "pop" teaching/learning theory, anecdotes, and pedestrian "tips and tricks" would be masochistic. In contrast, my general role was to raise questions, facilitate discussion, and consult: attempting to frame, focus, and refocus discussion on relevant issues from the presentations and readings. More specifically, after a brief orientation to the course, I would introduce speakers, facilitate discussions, administer assessments, answer special requests, and wrap up the course with reflections on the readings. Thus, my job was to construct a comfortable environment in which faculty-as-learners could discover and experience successful faculty activities, programs, and projects, while critically reflecting about their own dilemmas, tensions, and frustrations inside (and in some cases) outside the classroom.

The Great Teachers Short Course

Session 1

During the first hour of the first session, I introduced myself, welcomed the participants, invited participants to introduce themselves, distributed the class list, discussed the syllabus, and administered the information sheet. The information sheet asked faculty to list their objectives, goals, or expectations for participating in the course and what the course should and should not do to satisfy their needs. A final section, "Jim, just between you and me, this course..." was added to establish the course's informal, comfortable, and non-threatening environment.

Participants' objectives included collecting new ideas that may involve students in more active learning situations, finding out the qualities that great teachers share, accessing readings related to great teaching, a feeling of re-excitement to the teaching profession, and, of course, the one hour of graduate credit, leading to a salary increment.

To satisfy their needs, participants recommended that the course should allow sufficient time for group discussion, provide references to material on great teaching/learning, be theoretical and practical, and respect the integrity of all the participants. Conversely, it should not "stray into the jungle of educational theory or jargon;" "make participants feel defensive regarding their teaching styles;" "become sexist, racist, or politically correct;" "be a gripe session about students;" and "generalize about pedagogy 'till I get sleepy."

Responses to the question, Jim, just between you and me, this course....included "meeting with students during the eighth session to test ideas we come up with during the short course."

Based on participants' responses to questions on the information sheets, I added a list of 100+ educational journals in the college's Learning Resource Center to the bibliography of 50+ books on great teaching and learning which I had already compiled. I also decided to include a question on the mid-course evaluation about participants' interest in meeting with students during the final session. (Responses to this question are given in Table 3.)

During the second hour of the first session, following a short break, the Dean of Instruction for Transfer, Adult, and Continuing Education presented an original paper, "The

Master Teacher: Some Thoughts about the Concept," in which he offered images of the master teacher as learner, practitioner, and poet. Then, he distributed and discussed three handouts (Christensen, 1991; Day, 1980; Shuell, 1986), focusing on the cognitive orientation to learning and, in particular, learning as an ongoing, constructive, and active process.

Sessions 2 - 7

During the second through the seventh sessions, outstanding faculty made 45-minute presentations followed by short breaks and group discussions about their remarks relative to the assigned readings. The presenters represented a range of disciplines: chemistry, business management, mathematics, foreign languages, history, and geology. The readings included Appleby's *Faculty and Student Perceptions of Irritating Behaviors in the College Classroom* (1990), Light's *Explorations with Students and Faculty about Teaching, Learning, and Student Life* (1992), Jewell's *Tips for Teaching Excellence and Student Motivation* (1987), and Palmer's *Good Teaching: A Matter of Living the Mystery* (1990).

The first presenter, a chemistry professor, talked about the importance of the following: developing students' tolerance for risk and failure; using chemistry as a means of selling problem solving, discipline, punctuality, and good work habits; and students learning the scientific method from observation and experience. The second presenter, a Business Management professor, used a management model to analyze his teaching style in terms of planning, organizing, leading, and controlling the class, while explaining student and instructor commitments on his course syllabus. The third presenter, a Mathematics professor, detailed two primary techniques to get students involved (namely, writing and collaboration), stressing that her goal was to get students to think at a higher level by modeling and practice.

Table 3 shows the results of the mid-course evaluation which I administered at the end of the fourth session.

As I listened to the discussions following the presentations, it seemed to me that participants were critiqueing the presenters' teaching styles and techniques rather than trying to explore the extent to which they might incorporate, integrate, and blend what they had just heard and seen into their classes. I discussed this dilemma with the Dean of Instruction and one of the participants. The participant suggested that identifying differences between the presenters' and participants' teaching styles was the first step toward instructional refinement for experienced faculty. The Dean recommended that I divide the participants into smaller groups and distribute written instructions for completing the exploratory assignment: a strategy that I eventually adopted with better results.

The fourth presenter, a French professor/administrator, discussed factors in successful foreign language learning and how to deal with foreign language students' concerns, while stressing the value of frequent writing assignments (including a journal) and students' choosing and assuming a name in the foreign language to shift discomfort and maintain self-esteem. The fifth presenter, a History professor, stressed using pictures and analogies to make key points, admitting his errors and pointing out errors in the text to students, relating the material to events in students' daily lives, and turning conclusions upside down as attention getters. The sixth presenter, a Geology professor, discussed challenging students to perform, involvement activities, humorous graphics to convey messages, organization and discipline, and professional dress within the broader context of methods for teaching students how to learn.

Session 8

During the eighth and final session, participants first met with a class of business students. In the debriefing that followed, participants conveyed students' needs such as being treated as students, people, and friends without regard for age, gender, and experience differences. The possibility of offering a future short course for faculty dealing with the limits of advising versus counseling was also proposed.

Next, three participants presented preliminary reports regarding the value of the short course including seasoned educational

TABLE 3
Results of Mid-Course Evaluation

Mid-Course Evaluation
GREAT TEACHERS SHORT COURSE
Fall, 1992

Please indicate whether you Strongly Agree (SA), Agree (A), Have No Opinion (NO), Disagree (D), or Strongly Disagree (SD) with the first three statements. Then, answer questions 4 - 7, as required. Thank you.

1. So far, this short course *has satisfied* my goals, objectives, and expectations. (46%)(54%)
SA A NO D SD

2. So far, this short course *has done* what I suggested it should do to satisfy my needs. (31%) (69%)
SA A NO D SD

3. So far, this short course has not done what I suggested it should not do to satisfy my needs. (Unclear question. Threw it out.)
SA A NO D SD

4. Jim, just between you and me, this short course *"should spend more time on the readings and less on the students-today-are-awful syndrome."*

5. I believe that a meeting with a group of students would increase the value of this short course for me.
(62%) YES (30%) NO (8%) UNDECIDED

6. We should meet with students for ___________ minutes.
a. 0 (33%) b. 30 (33%) c. 45 (22%) d. 60 (12%) UNDECIDED

7. We should meet with students during _______________.
(67%) a. the eighth and last scheduled session, Wednesday, October 7th.
(22%) b. a ninth session, Monday, October 12th.
(11%)c. UNDECIDED

principles, refined instructional techniques, and a simulated television talk-show exercise to generate class discussion or performance about course-related topics. Enhancing student awareness, furthering student centeredness, and increasing teacher-student integration were proposed as educational principles for nourishing an instructor's maturity. Refined instructional techniques included student-generated profile cards to convey fears and expectations for a course, reading authentic texts, (e.g., medical records in a Medical Terminology course), and "critical analysis of articles rather than merely handing them out and telling students to read them when they have time." The simulated talk-show proposal detailed its central idea, primary objectives, pros and cons, material needed, preparation, and assessment instrument.

The final activity, administering the final course evaluation, was followed up with my thoughts for further inquiry. Table 4 shows the results of the final course evaluation. In my closing remarks to the participants, I quoted from Parker Palmer (1990):

> Mystery is a primal and powerful human experience that can neither be ignored nor reduced to formula. To learn from mystery, we must enter with all our faculties alert, ready to laugh as well as groan, able to 'live the question' rather than demand a final answer.

I concluded that I hoped the course had assisted the participants, as much as it had assisted me, to

TABLE 4
Results of Final Course Evaluation

Final Course Evaluation GREAT TEACHERS SHORT COURSE Fall, 1992	
Please indicate whether you Strongly Agree (SA), Agree (A), Have No Opinion (NO), Disagree (D), or Strongly Disagree (SD) with the first two statements. Then, answer the other questions, as required. Thank you.	
1. This short course satisfied my goals, objectives, and expectations.	(46%)(54%) SA A NO D SD
2. This short course did what I suggested it should do to satisfy my needs.	(54%) (46%) SA A NO D SD
3. I would recommend this short course to my colleagues.	(92%)(8%) YES NO UNDECIDED
4. I would attend a six month reunion of participants in this short course.	(76%)(16%)(8%) YES NO UNDECIDED
5. Jim, just between you and me, this short course *"was a good experience, but I most enjoyed the dialogue with the students,"* *"was a broadening learning experience,"* *"was engaging, motivating, informative, and—most importantly—time well spent,"* *"was enjoyable meeting people from other divisions and talking about new ideas,"* *"could be done with fewer outside speakers so we'd have more time to discuss the articles," and* *"confirmed many of the techniques I am using in my classroom, and I have become reflective about some other things I am doing."*	

"live the question" about the critical mass of great teachers and teaching.

Participants' Written Reports

All participants submitted final written reports regarding the extent to which they might incorporate, integrate, or blend what they gleaned from the short course into one or more classes they taught. Many of the reports converged on the value of general themes such as instructor-student engagement and mutual responsibilities, collaboration among students, non-threatening learning environment, critical thinking and writing across the curriculum, the use of current analogies and humor, modeling, and a willingness to evolve and innovate.

Nearly every report identified a most "significant teaching strategy," "valuable lesson," or "especially insightful" part of the short course. A participant from the Engineering, Math, and Physical Science Division most appreciated presenters' "organizational skills and preparedness," and planned to develop a contractual agreement which she and her students would sign during the first class meeting. A participant from the Business Division wrote about "moving the collaborative effort over one more notch" and planned to "encourage students to do the research for their term papers with a partner." A report written by a participant from the Division of Adult and Continuing Education praised a presenter who "showed us that we learn best by becoming actively involved in the process."

A Math instructor noticed "one common theme" among all the presentations ("If students are writing in your course, they are engaging themselves with the material and they are learning at a higher level.") and developed three writing exercises for students in Basic Algebra, Calculus, and Analytic Geometry II. A Philosophy instructor developed an elaborate "philosophical mystery scrapbook" assignment, and an Economics instructor, while skeptical of "pop theories promoted by new age teaching advocates who perceive the teaching/learning experience as something similar to a voyage on the educational Good Ship Lollipop," considered "introducing computer simulated macroeconomic policy games" and "instituting economics labs to complement classroom lectures."

A Speech teacher thought that "the most valuable thing I can teach students is how to get along without me, to be autonomous and responsible members of society," and planned to "incorporate a new approach to assisting students by requiring that they do more work without my help each time they come in for extra help." A History professor planned to "make greater use of contemporary analogies, make students aware of false correlations to enhance analytical skills, and bring cultural artifacts to class to underscore points in referring to certain periods and how people used those artifacts." Finally, a Communication Arts instructor's reflections moved me most deeply:

> The most powerful lesson I got from your class was to listen to myself more closely when I am plunging in trying to change people and to slow down and let people go at the pace that is most comfortable for them. I believe that we must teach to the needs of each student, but in practice I often expect everyone to talk, everyone to get involved, everyone to write at their deepest, most honest level. I have to rethink this, and your class helped me to see that. It wasn't always a pleasant experience, but it was a powerful one. Thanks, Jim.

Reflections

While I realize that confession is better for one's soul than for one's reputation, I must confess some of my experiences versus expectations about managing a Great Teachers Short Course and suggest some refinements for a future course.

First, I underestimated some participants' desire to end each session at exactly 4 p.m., arrange chairs in a circle during discussion, and preview a copy of a final written assignment which followed the guidelines on the short course's syllabus. Therefore, I would start and each session according to the designated times, prearrange the chairs in a circle to facilitate discussion among adults, and put several final reports on reserve in the college's Learning Resource Center as models for completing the assignment.

Secondly, I underestimated most participants' reluctance, during the discussions immediately following each presentation, to explore how they might incorporate, integrate, or blend what they had just heard and seen into one or more of their courses: a hesitation, later described by one participant, as "part of a larger issue of their general reluctance to share at that level of discourse." Participants seemed more comfortable critiqueing presenters' instructional techniques, policies, and styles. To facilitate participants' exploration, I would institute the Dean's recommendation to distribute written instructions to smaller groups and ask each to present its findings to the larger group. This modification would give each participant a greater opportunity to discuss issues, while minimizing the amount of time any one participant could dominate discussion.

Thirdly, how could I be so presumptuous to state on the syllabus that the course's objective was "to identify, analyze, explicate, and explore the critical mass of great teachers and great teaching"? At best, the course's objective, I now admit from experience, might work toward that end. Finally, I underestimated my joy reading participants' final reports, summarizing the value of the short course and detailing their plans for adapting and in some cases adopting wholesale the presenters' instructional skills, techniques, and styles.

The Great Teachers Short Course was a provocative experience for me not only in terms of developing, implementing, and assessing a graduate level course for my peers but also learning more about great teachers and teaching from the presenters and the participants.

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Additional Information

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By Elaine Gordon & John Hoddinott

Helping TAs to Help Themselves: A Model Training System Using a Peer TA

In a TA training program graduate students respond positively to leadership provided by a peer. However, the TAs' preference for spending time on their own research is an impediment to training.

DURING THE GRADUATE training of prospective faculty it is rare that they are given formal preparation for their role as teachers. The importance of receiving such training has been emphasized in reports in both the U.S.A. (Boyer, 1987) and Canada (Smith, 1991). Interest in graduate teaching training has lead to a variety of studies and model programs that have been summarized by Eckstein, Boice and Chua-Yap (1991). Our department provided no formal guidance to TAs beyond technical help relating to lab activities.

In informal discussions on how they could be prepared for their teaching role, TAs concluded it would be easier to reflect about their teaching if asked to do so in a secure, non-threatening environment provided by one of their peers rather than by a faculty member. To meet that need an experienced graduate student was selected as a peer TA who would collaborate with a faculty resource person to develop a training program with its component workshops, resource materials and evaluation procedures. The peer TA was formally responsible for leading discussions and for TA and program evaluation, and informally responsible for providing support as one who had mastered the role of TA. The faculty member was to assist in program design, provide resource materials and help present information in specific content areas.

Introductory Workshop

Before the first term, a one day workshop began with an overview of that terms program and the introduction of course technical person-

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nel and faculty members. A series of activities and discussions followed:

1. A small group introduction exercise was modelled to show how students could introduce each other rather than having the TA read out the class list. It demonstrated how TAs could quickly create a friendly lab environment conducive to active learning.

2. Because most students in the course are in their first year, TAs were asked to spend some time reflecting on their own first year experience. Those reflections were shared between the whole group and recorded on a flip chart. Common issues included fear of failure, loneliness, how to manage time and the desire for social success, and similar issues have been identified by Holdaway & Kelloway (1987). The importance of empathizing with first year students was highlighted.

3. Intellectual development was summarized in a handout on Perry's scheme. It was noted that the stands taken in written and oral communication may vary reflecting each student's developmental stage. A second handout reviewed Bloom's cognitive domain taxonomy and our objective of helping students move towards higher cognitive activities was discussed.

4. Other handouts and activities reviewed the use of concept mapping and the importance of encouraging students to develop their writing skills. An exercise on essay writing from Habeshaw & Steeds (1987) was discussed.

The first lab meeting of the TAs with their students has partly involved taking the students on a lecture tour of six display greenhouses. To model the concept of active learning we gave the TAs a sheet of questions to be answered by going on a scavenger hunt in the greenhouses. On their return we reviewed the answers and the activity as an alternative to current practice.

5. A small group microteaching exercise allowed the TAs, particularly those who had never taught before, to deliver a presentation and receive feedback in a non-threatening environment.

6. An evaluation form was circulated and TAs were also invited to identify teaching issues that they wanted to address.

Weekly Meetings

Handouts and activities surveyed included:

1. Handouts on Kolb's Learning Style Inventory and a learning cycle activity on mitosis (Danieley, 1990). TAs were asked to devise a learning cycle activity for a later lab. Many TAs attempted to introduce such activities into their labs and a subsequent meeting reviewed the TA's opinion of the generally positive student response to the activities.

2. Modelling small group discussions. One TA volunteered to act as the class instructor by posing a question to the others. After small group discussions, outcomes were shared with the whole group. At the end of the exercise all TAs reflected on how the discussions had been managed and how such exercises could be introduced to deal with issues relevant

to material covered in their upcoming labs. Many TAs introduced such discussions into their lab.

3. The first lab quizzes given by the TAs were evaluated after randomizing the questions to maintain anonymity. TAs worked in small groups scrutinizing questions for their level in Bloom's cognitive domain, for errors and for suitability in the lab context. The general consensus was that questions mostly tested at the knowledge and comprehension level and that there were many other shortcomings.

At the next meeting new sample questions devised by the TAs were reviewed and strategies like having another TA proof read a quiz prior to its administration were identified. That proof reading strategy was preferred over one which would share the quiz with the peer TA or the faculty resource person. TAs said they felt very "exposed" through their quizzes.

A test grid model was introduced which compared subject areas with Bloom cognitive domain levels. It allowed TAs to compare what they are trying to test with how they are meeting test objectives (Jungwith, 1992).

4. To supplement the discussions on quiz preparation and marking we reviewed the Structure of Observed Learning Outcomes (SOLO) Taxonomy (Biggs & Collis, 1982). The scheme provided a structure to allow TAs to assess the quality of a student's response to subjective questions on quizzes and exams.

5. A handout on the special needs of adult learners who make up an increasing percentage of the first year student population was discussed.

TA Evaluation

1. Formative evaluation.

To gather student feedback on performance and allow time for changes in TA behavior before the end of term, a formative evaluation was conducted after four weeks. TAs modified a form drafted by the facilitator and the modified form was administered. The TAs decided that they wanted the responses to be a forced choice between YES and NO as they thought that would generate more definitive information. Open ended questions were also included. TAs swapped labs to administer and collect the evaluation forms.

The peer facilitator summarized quantitative data and collated qualitative responses and met with individual TAs to discuss the results and allow the TA to identify the strategies they would adopt for improvement. A copy of the strategies for improvement was signed by the TA.

The TAs were pleased with the overall positive nature of their evaluations. Problems generally centered on TAs not speaking loudly enough or not writing clearly, the solutions being self-evident, or TAs having an accent. Strategies put forward by TAs to overcome their accent problem were speak more slowly and write down instructions.

The TAs reported the formative evaluation raised their self-esteem.

2. Summative Evaluation.

A summative evaluation form was administered two weeks before the end of term. The peer facilitator summarized the results and met with individual TAs to discuss them. Responses showed that most students had noticed a positive change in the TAs' behavior in response to their comments. That was gratifying to the TAs involved, not only because the students had noticed the effort but also because the TAs were satisfied that they had obviously improved. The students in turn were gratified their suggestions had been taken seriously. Such a win-win situation was one of the outcomes hoped for in the project.

Program Evaluation

At the end of term, 13 of the 15 TAs completed an evaluation of the training program. The TAs generally thought the program was helpful and they would like it to continue. They thought their participation should be limited to one term's program and that participation should be voluntary. Table 1 indicates which program exercises and handouts the TAs found most useful. Items discussed rather than modelled were seen as being less useful as TAs could not see how to apply them for their own use. Similar observations were reported by Boehrer & Sarkisian (1985).

TABLE 1
Program Exercises and Handouts Found Most Useful by TAs

Which program topics were helpful to you in lab preparation, pre-lab presentation and preparing and marking quizzes? Maximum possible response = 13.

	YES	NO
Conducting small group discussion.	9	1
Quiz preparation.	9	1
Formative evaluation.	8	1
Microteaching exercise.	8	3
Bloom's taxonomy	7	2
Adult learner characterisitcs.	4	3
Perry's developmental stages.	4	5
Kolb's learning style inventory.	2	4

Table 2 indicates what training material TAs incorporated into their labs. Again it was the material that was modelled that tended to be incorporated.

TABLE 2
Training Material Incorporated Into Laboratories by TAs

Which of the following strategies have you incorporated into your lab sections? Maximum possible response = 13.

	YES	NO
Small group discussions.	10	1
Introduction exercise.	9	3
Learning cycles.	9	2
Development of writing skills.	6	5
Concept mapping.	4	8

Conclusions

Our program was designed to improve the quality of instruction in our first year courses and to improve the instructional repertoire of the TAs with a view to making them more marketable for jobs or further graduate work. We thought this would be a significant motivating factor but as Boehrer and Sarkisian (1985) have noted, economic and political contexts on the value of teaching affect how TAs view teaching.

Our most surprising finding was how well the faculty have trained graduate students to be just like them. Our university is a large institution with many doctoral and professional programs where research output plays an important part in faculty salary and promotion decisions. The TAs were all pursuing M.Sc. or Ph.D. degrees and the majority of them were of the opinion that there was a limited time they were prepared to spend away from research to concentrate on improving their teaching skills.

To satisfy the goals of Boyer (1987) and Smith (1991) for the training of future faculty, more attention must be given to convincing TAs and faculty that teaching really is important.

Our program introduction reflected the view that lab teaching is best when all participants in the course delivery work together. In all meetings we encouraged the TAs to share what activities worked, what did not and what modifications could be made. Those discussions were very constructive. Such a level of interaction between TAs would be more difficult in a generic university or faculty training program where participants would not be teaching common labs, and the peer TA provided a context and structure for discussions.

When it came to evaluating participation in an ongoing program there was strong resistance to being involved in all or part of a subsequent program. The commitment to teaching was seen as an individual rather than collective effort where TAs would learn from each other and receive reinforcement to try new things. This reluctance toward ongoing participation was rooted in the TAs' desire to get on with their research.

All TAs were positive about the success of the peer TA in her role as facilitator of the program. That supports the opinion of Staton and Darling (1989) that veteran TAs should be actively involved in TA training. The TAs were also positive about the input provided from the faculty member but preferred the support from the peer TA. This again supports Stanford & Darling's (1989) conclusion of that there is a lot to be desired in the professor-TA relationship and that veteran TAs can provide effective help in TA training programs.

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By Maxine C. Mott

REFRAME: A Model for Promoting Faculty/Staff Vitality and Excellence

There are numerous models for staff development programs, however, few of these apply to the postsecondary educational setting. The author presents REFRAME, a model for professional development, and how the model was introduced into a community college setting.

OVER THE PAST DECADE numerous staff development models have evolved. However, few of these models apply to the postsecondary educational setting. REFRAME is one approach to professional development in such a setting. REFRAME is the acronym for the seven steps or phases of the model. This is a model which focuses on the personal and professional development within the framework of an institution's efforts and actions toward excellence.

If administrators and staff are serious in their pursuit of excellence and their desire to meet the needs of students, they must adopt a formalized professional development program. They must embrace a proactive approach in order to develop human and organizational resources in anticipation of the emerging trends, needs, and changes in the social milieu. Traditional approaches (orientation, professional leaves, workshops, conferences, etc.) are still valid forms of professional development. However, there is a pressing need for more systematic and comprehensive strategies. Most of the traditional professional development activities focus on "current" roles staff are in and do not address the potential future needs and abilities that will be required of them (Baldwin, 1985; Orlich, 1989).

In this paper the terms staff development, professional development, and faculty development are used interchangeably. Although the terms administration and faculty member are used most often, the intent of the REFRAME model is for

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all staff members to be included in an institution's pursuit of excellence through development.

Rational for a Structured Professional Development Program

It is unlikely an institution is working at maximum efficiency without a formal professional development program. Bradley, Chesson and Silverleaf (1983) point out that unless professional development is planned, acknowledged, and supported by administration "There will tend to be lack of experimentation, innovation, and of impetus" (p. 23).

Faculty member profiles have changed. During the late 1960s and early 1970s there was an influx of new young faculty members into the postsecondary system. These faculty members are still in the system, many retrenched in their roles. Currently, many institutions have faculty members waiting out their time until retirement. The average age of faculty is increasing. At this author's institution the average age of faculty is forty-six years and the average length of service is nine and one half years. Qualification requirements for faculty are changing. With the community colleges offering more university transfer programs faculty members are often required to hold a doctorate degree. Budget constraints in postsecondary education during the 1980s limited new hiring, resulting in decreased mobility for faculty. These same budget constraints have led to program cuts and increased student numbers in classes, thus requiring faculty to teach new courses or use new approaches to instruction (Eble & McKeachie, 1985; Schuster, Wheeler & Associates, 1990).

Student demographics have also changed. The typical student is no longer just out of high school. A large percentage of students are in their late twenties to mid thirties, are often pursuing new career paths, and have very definite goals and objectives. They come to the classroom with varied knowledge bases garnered from their life experiences (Eble & McKeachie, 1985; Grabowski, 1983). For many this is a second career and a *return* to postsecondary education

Another reason for a structured professional development program is to assist institutions in adapting to the many changes they are facing. These changes include financial constraints, increasing demands for seats to accommodate student demand, and need to change course offerings to keep up with societal changes

George Keller, author of *Academic Strategies: The Management Revolution in American Higher Education* states "there is nothing so important to a College... as the quality and vigor of its faculty" (p. 22). I would elaborate on this to include all employees.

Components of a Successful Professional Development Program

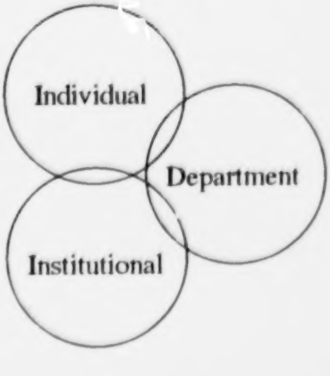
While there are several components of effective faculty development, some are vital for program survival (Caldwell & Marshall, 1982; Hinson, Caldwell & Landrum, 1989; Showers, Joyce, & Bennett, 1987).

1. The professional development program includes all employees within an institution including faculty, support staff and administration.
2. Clear definitions of roles, functions, responsibilities, and lines of authority are agreed upon. This must be done at the beginning of the program planning process and needs to be seen as fair and realistic by everyone. An Advisory Committee with representation from each of the stakeholder groups could provide the basis for this planning.
3. Employee involvement in planning and decision making throughout the program is essential. This promotes increased awareness of an institution's mission and goals, increased ownership on the part of the employee, and increased participant responsibility and accountability. To maximize employees potential it is necessary to adopt an integrative administration style of decision making early in the program. If decisions are made at the administration or professional development coordinator level it is little more than patronizing. It makes little financial sense to plan something that may be perceived by employees as having little relevance to their needs. Individuals, therefore, must be active participants in defining their own needs as they relate to their department. An example of this is the department whose focus may be changing from the traditional information-giving teaching method to an active learning focus. The instructors may require professional development activities that assist them in revising their teaching approaches, the department head may need assistance in learning new leadership strategies which allow more employee autonomy, and the department may need support in identifying and developing an appropriate evaluation format for the new teaching focus program. It is the department members who decide what their needs are.
4. It is necessary to address long range needs of the institution and faculty and staff, looking toward personal, instructional, and institutional development. The *Carnegie Foundation Report for the Advancement of Teaching* released in 1990 recommends that faculty design 3-5 year professional development contracts which will allow them to focus on scholarly activities during their career. A development program needs to be based on long range planning versus "one shot"

events. This means that a department should have long range goals and objectives which include professional development activities, with the individuals planning their own professional development keeping the department goals and objectives in mind.

5. Realistic incentives must be provided to the employees. These need to include the intrinsic rewards, the 3R's (respect, recognition and reinforcement); and the extrinsic rewards, the 3M's (money, medals, and mugs). Most often extrinsic rewards are not so important for their monetary value but for what they represent to the individual, institution, and the community at large.
6. Awareness of the institutional culture is a necessary consideration in program planning. Clear, ongoing communication between all parties is essential. There needs to be a climate of trust, especially in times of change. Change can be exciting when done by us, threatening when done to us. It is important that the professional development program focuses on the development of an individual and is not evaluation of an individual. Evaluation should be on the actual development program not the participants.
7. A commitment from the institution for financial support is absolutely essential. The professional development program should be identified in an institution's long range development plan. Colleges and Institutions in Canada are lagging behind four year institutions in fund raising for "teacher development" or human resource development. For example, the University of Victoria (British Columbia) has set up a task force to look at the quality of teaching on campus and to make recommendations based on the findings. The University of Calgary (Alberta) received funding for a five year period to support a Teacher Development Office. Queen's University (Ontario) received government, student and administration funding, for a new centre devoted to improving teaching techniques. And St. Thomas University (New Brunswick) is planning a major fund raising campaign aimed at promoting teaching excellence at the University. Without financial resources the likelihood of a program succeeding are slim.

DIAGRAM 1.

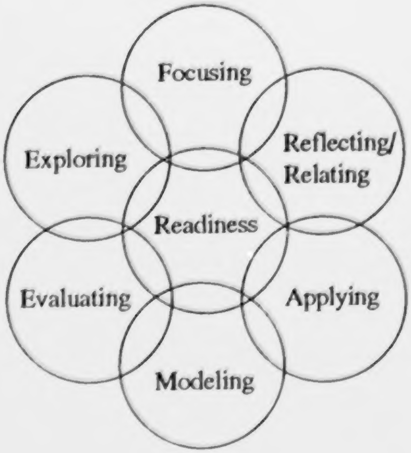


Phases/Steps of REFRAME

REFRAME is an acronym for the seven steps or phases of this professional development model: *readiness, exploring, focusing, reflecting/ relating, applying, modelling, and evaluating.* REFRAME focuses on personal and professional development of all employees within the framework of an institution's efforts and actions toward excellence. The model addresses the needs of an institution while allowing individuals to define their own learning needs.

REFRAME is based on the notion that staff development is a reframing of personal experiences, values, attitudes, approaches, and behaviors. Fundamental to the development of this model was the belief that individuals can change if they are allowed to think, feel, and act for themselves and that individuals require support and recognition for their efforts in the change process. Staff development that is guided by the REFRAME model centres on reflective learning and teaching which allows individuals to reconstruct their respective life experiences through protected experimentation. This experimentation challenges participants' abilities, both individually and collectively, and directs the course and content of their future life experiences. An avenue for *reframing* past events and understandings is provided through this model. Participants are moved toward new insights and knowledge. Opportunities are provided for the exploration of new ideas, skills, or bodies of knowledge which are set within the context of learners' past, current, and future experiences.

DIAGRAM 2.



REFRAME as a model for staff development is not linear. Its design is circular and fluid. While the emphasis may be on any particular phase of the model at any given time, once readiness is established the other phases of the model are constantly interacting. The goals and activities of each of the phases are discussed below (see Table 1).

Readiness

There must be a sense for the need to change by the institution as well as the individual. This requires a basic understanding of professional development and the processes involved. An assessment by the institution, the department, and the individual needs to be completed. The assessment should look at the current administrative views

TABLE 1
REFRAME Professional Development Model (Mott, 1991).

FOCUS	ASSUMPTIONS	PHASES/STEPS	COMMENTS
Individual & Organization	1. Staff development is the process of change which occurs over time. 2. Individuals can change provided they are allowed to think, to feel, and to act for themselves. 3. Change involves inquiry, experimentation, and risk taking. 4. Staff development is the reframing of personal and professional experiences, values, attitudes, and behaviors. 5. Administrative support and recognition of staff efforts are necessary in the change process. 6. Effective staff development addresses the needs of the institution while allowing individuals to define their own needs. 7. Change contributes to improved performance of students, faculty, and institution. 8. The principles of adult learning should guide staff development programs.	1. Readiness -sense of need for change -administrative support provided -understanding developed of what staff development process will be 2. Exploring -needs, feelings, ideas, attitudes examined -CBAM done -possible strategies determined 3. Focusing -institutional, departmental goals, objectives, strategies, and evaluation process identified 4. Reflecting/Relating -individuals set own goals, objectives; identify strategies 5. Applying -learning/training activities provided -implement new behaviors 6. Modelling -new behaviors modelled -support for change provided 7. Evaluating -ongoing, formative, as well as summative at specified times	• concurrent institutional, departmental, and individual development • exploring, focusing, reflecting, applying, modelling, and evaluating continuous throughout the change process • recognizes faculty as professionals having a responsibility to the institution • allows for faculty involvement in decision making • promotes long term planning with follow-up • based on adult learning principles • flexible • requires commitment from each level; individual, department, and administration

and support for professional development, the present level of professional development activities, and internal and external resources available. Brown bag lunches, informal discussion sessions, and having professional development included on department meeting agendas are ways of assessing readiness.

Exploring

During this phase there is an identification of staff development needs, both institutional and individual. This can be done by brainstorming sessions occurring at various levels within the institution and by research and inquiry into the different types of programs available. These sessions may be institution wide, department specific or discipline specific. Questions need to be asked concerning the relevance of the stated goals and objectives within today's academic world; the mission statement, is it still valid; how might the institution or department be different than it currently is; and, most importantly, what development program will best meet the needs of the students?

Focusing

The focusing phase involves a clarification of the activities of the professional development program. Focusing requires clear identification of goals and objectives of the program (institutional and departmental) and strategies to realize these goals. Detailed action plans should be developed. Participant incentives must be clarified at this time. And it is during this phase that program evaluation procedures and time lines are established.

Relating/Reflecting

During the relating/reflecting phase of REFRAME individual employees complete a needs assessment specific to their own concerns. They are required to set individual goals and develop personal action plans. While doing this they might ask themselves what are the important issues related to teaching; what strengths and weaknesses do they perceive in themselves; what do they want to be doing differently five years from now? It is during this phase that individual professional development plans are created.

Applying

It is during the applying phase of REFRAME that implementation of any training activities should occur. Once training and learning needs have been identified, actions plans are set in motion. Following the learning or training sessions individuals must take the initiative to apply the new skills and knowledge in the work setting. Practice is necessary for the refinement of new skills and knowledge and for transference of the new learning into an individual's repertoire of teaching behaviors. Studies have shown that it takes at least twenty-five trials before a new skill becomes part of an individual's repertoire of behavior (Joyce and Showers, 1988).

Modelling

It is especially important that administrators reinforce the importance of professional development. It is often role-modelling by others that encourages commitment by those who tend to be hesitant at becoming involved in a structured professional development program. Modelling is the responsibility of all stakeholders including senior administrators, deans, department heads, faculty, and support staff.

Evaluating

Evaluation of a professional development program involves ongoing, formative evaluation and assessment. It is also necessary for summative evaluation to take place at appropriate times throughout the program. The strategies for evaluation and timelines should have been identified during the Focusing phase. Effective evaluation concentrates on assessing the professional development program, *not* the individuals engaged in professional development activities.

Implementation

A modified format of REFRAME has been introduced at this author's institution. The focus of the program is the promotion of Teaching Excellence. This is consistent with the goal and mission of the College, to promote student success and satisfaction. Senior administration are supportive of a formalize professional development program and have taken an active part in promoting the concept. They have been involved in brown bag lunches on various strategies and topics related to teaching excellence. Various faculty/administrative committees have been struck to look at the different approaches that might be considered in a teaching excellence program. Faculty members have had an active role in these committees, either volunteering or being appointed by the Faculty Association. Results of these efforts have varied. The introduction of a Personal/Professional Development Plan has had mixed reactions. Many faculty members are completing them in isolation, while a few departments are encouraging faculty members to complete plans and update them annually. One academic department held a workshop during a department Planning Day Retreat to facilitate completion of the personal/professional development plans. A Faculty Peer Collaboration Pilot Project has just been completed with positive evaluations from the participants and resulting in an ongoing program being proposed. The concept of Teaching Dossiers has been introduced with the initial response being positive. As well, several academic departments have started programs which include a series of workshops focusing on specific development needs that have been identified by faculty members.

An issue that has not been dealt with in this modified format is the involvement of the support staff. This is an area that needs to be addressed to ensure that the institution is functioning at maximum effectiveness. Discussions involving this group of stakeholders are in the initial stages. The aim is to include all groups of employees in the professional development program in a way that will meet their needs as well as those of the institution. This modified approach to REFRAME is not ideal but it does provide a starting point for the reframing of professional development within an institutional setting. It will require ongoing information sharing and planning in an effort to build a formal program that meets the needs of all constituent groups.

Summary

Individual commitment to change by employees alone will not produce significant professional development. In order to effect change, there must be opportunities and options provided by the institution. Behaviors need to be modelled which demonstrate the value of personal and professional growth. Modelling can serve as a strong motivator which results in a ripple effect and which may inspire individuals who appear uninterested. A development program needs to be a collaborative effort and not an administrative or employee program.

REFRAME is presented as a faculty development model which focuses on collaboration among the various stakeholders. It is through the linking of stakeholders who are all exploring, focusing, reflecting, and relating that growth, development, and change is allowed to thrive. The collaborative nature of REFRAME allows for the application of new skills, modelling of new behaviors, and evaluating of desired outcomes.

REFRAME promotes learning and knowledge development as never ending. Through REFRAME employees model the value of lifelong learning to students and peers. The REFRAME model is not a set of rules, but rather a set of guidelines to follow while pursuing vitality, autonomy, and excellence through professional development. This pursuit can be realized if institutions, departments, and individuals REFRAME.

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By Hugh L. Thompson

New Relationships Between Universities, Community Colleges, and Technical Colleges

Improved relationships among community colleges, technical schools and universities would maximize the utilization of limited resources and eliminate the wasting of our human resources, asserts the author. The academies can no longer be oblivious to the changes which are occurring around them.

HIGHER EDUCATIONAL institutions are currently under siege due to a perception that they have become sheltered enclaves out of touch with reality (Anderson, 1992; CPRE, 1993; Harris, 1992). In many instances they: are viewed as turning out graduates who have deficiencies in many disciplines, including communications and mathematics; are engaged in unnecessary duplication of programs; are poorly managed; do not want to be accountable to anyone; and become belligerent when criticized. Oftentimes, the response from colleges and universities is that they are under funded and the cure-all is to provide more money to solve their problems. This "canned retort" leads the critics to believe that the postsecondary sector is glutinous and has an insatiable appetite for money. The criticisms are becoming louder and more recurring, and these messages seem to have greater receptivity among increasingly larger audiences.

With this continued erosion of confidence on the part of persons, organizations, or agencies which are responsible for the financial stewardship of higher education, the institutions are viewed as part of the problem, not as a contributor to the solution of problems. Leadership is needed for the purpose of re-establishing higher education's position in our society as an undeniable value worthy of public support. This lead-

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ership may be manifested in a variety of ways ranging from dealing with issues as curricula, unnecessary duplication of programs, organizational changes, employee relationships, transferability of credit, cooperative agreements with institutions, etc. The reclamation of public trust is one of the most pressing concerns facing higher education today.

While it is recognized that higher education cannot be the only catalytic agent in maintaining and improving the economy, it is felt that colleges and universities should be an integral component and full partner in the process. Here again, the academies are not without criticism because they are not perceived as channeling resources with dispatch into programmatic areas needed by contemporary businesses. The business and industrial sector is spending approximately $30 billion per year on education and training compared to the $155 billion spent by postsecondary education (ASTD, 1993; NCES, 1992). As companies enter into the global marketplace, there is a need to become more competitive.

In an effort to compete successfully, some firms are downsizing. Still, there is a recognition that human resource development has to be maintained. As a result, the industrial sector is turning to the educational community for more assistance, especially in the area of training. Here again, many universities are seen as being non-responsive to this need. In addition as industry looks to the future, the types of career opportunities will be altered significantly. More and more, people will be required to have higher levels of technical skills and abilities. In some instances, some positions will not require a college education at the baccalaureate level and above. Many jobs will require technical proficiency and expertise which can be gained at area technical schools, technical institutes, or comprehensive community colleges. In this regard, the technical schools and community colleges have been much more aggressive in developing continuing education programs and appear to have demonstrated a willingness to work more cooperatively with business and industry than many of their upper division counterparts. Illustratively, Johnson County Community College and Burlington Northern Railroad have developed an exemplary industrial/educational partnership whereby Burlington Northern built facilities on the campus and training is provided by college faculty as well as Burlington training staff. However, many universities are beginning to become more proactive in the continuing education arena and have begun to view this market as a greater source of revenue.

It goes without saying that a master plan for education needs to be developed by all states to examine how our varied educational institutions can best serve their constituents. The legislative bodies of many states feel that there are excessive numbers of expensive, duplicating programs among upper division institutions; there are in some cases too many community colleges; and there is a lack of cooperation between area vocational technical schools and the technical programs being offered by the community colleges or associate degree granting technical institutes. It is perceived that it is the taxpayer who suffers the consequences through a lack of articulation among educational institutions and through the continuation of unnecessarily duplicating programs. Many colleges and universities are viewed as operating to protect their own vested interest and not looking at how they can best serve the residents of a designated geographic area or region of a state.

To exacerbate the situation even more, the senior colleges and universities have not developed meaningful articulation agreements with community colleges or technical schools. Representatives of some private colleges and state universities have viewed the educational services being provided by the associate degree granting institutions with some disdain. Some persons at the upper division colleges view the community colleges as a competitor which are syphoning students from their perceived, traditional and sacrosanct reservoir. Others have derided the community colleges because an intellectual snobbery syndrome exists regarding the quality of education being rendered by the "step child of postsecondary education."

Although many institutions of higher education in this period of depressed economy are experiencing diminishing or stabilized student enrollments, the percentage of students matriculating at community colleges has continued to increase. Therefore, college administrators and faculty at upper division institutions can no longer look with disfavor upon institutions which are continuing to attract large numbers of students. The time has come for institutions which offer baccalaureate degree programs to view the graduates of community colleges in the same manner as they have historically viewed the graduates of high schools. Institutions which offer degrees above the associate level should begin to develop a cooperative attitude toward the community colleges.

Several states already have recognized the necessity for articulating their systems of higher education. Other states have developed state-wide agreements for public institutions to accept the entire number of credits earned by an associate degree recipient. However, there is still reluctance on the part of many individual institutions and within colleges and universities among divisions or departments to work within the spirit of cooperation.

At many universities, the students who are enrolled in the parallel curricula may not have all the academic credits they earn apply to the general education requirements. The problem is compounded even more when a student earns an associate of applied science degree in a technical area. Some of the general education courses may be transferrable, but the technical courses may not be accepted, even as electives.

This presents a unique problem for recipients of an associate degree, especially in the technical area, who might want to pursue a baccalaureate degree for economic gains, upward mobility, or a change in careers. Basically, these individuals are told their associate degrees are terminal or previous educational experiences have been meaningless and cannot be accepted because there is nothing in the hierarchial course offerings of the senior institutions which are comparable to those they have earned. Today, it is recognized that an individual will change a career three to four times in a life span, and it is, also, time for institutions of higher education to begin to look at how an orderly transition can permit students to progress from one level to another or from one degree to another without undue penalty.

Many universities have "Bridge To College Programs" with high schools in which the high school student can enroll concurrently in a class and receive both university and high school credit. Perhaps the time has come for the "Seamless College Program", which will permit a student to enroll simultaneously in a course and receive both community college and university credit. Institutions such as Boise State University, Western Michigan University, and Southern Illinois University have moved in this direction.

Historically, the typical approach to higher education was for a student to graduate from high school and enter directly into the university setting. Initially, these students were to be exposed to a strong core of liberal arts courses and then declare an intended major leading to an area of specialization and ultimately to employment in some chosen career. Today, students are older, many are place bound, and opt for an associate degree solely to improve their income. Others have earned a baccalaureate degree and are now matriculating in associate degree programs to obtain technical expertise in another field...nationally about twenty percent of the community college students have earned baccalaureate degrees.

The higher education community should begin to recognize that the contemporary student may achieve an area of specialization first and then pursue the baccalaureate program, which would still build on the liberal arts foundation, but in an inverse order. Universities can no longer look in a disdainful manner at students who have chosen alternate educational programs which heretofore were considered alien or job oriented. They cannot afford to ignore the global environment, national economic trends or the current requirements of entry-level employment. They need to look at how they can still adhere to the "purest" viewpoint of post-secondary education and yet integrate educational experiences into new degree programs, thus enabling students to progress sequentially toward other educational venues. In many cases, these are the paths students must take to achieve or maintain a quality of life of their choosing. At the present rate of world economic change, education is the best route for Americans to "achieve the all-elusive American dream." And, right now, its the only path in which Americans still believe can lead to positive life changes.

Illustratively, a student who earns an associate of applied science degree in technology should be able to move into the university setting and have the credits transferable. Almost every associate of applied science degree has a general education component. These courses could be integrated into the general educational core of the university, and programs for these students could be developed to compensate for deficiencies and build on their individual strengths. Additionally, the technical programs could be viewed as fulfilling the requirements for areas of concentration. For example, by completing more general education, upper division, and perhaps some managerial or business administration courses, programs could be developed which lead to a baccalaureate degree in applied technology.

No degree should be viewed as a terminal degree, and this is basically what higher educational institutions must communicate to students who achieve associate degrees in technical programs. There is also a need for teachers in area technical schools, as well as the community colleges and technical institutes. An institution which is imaginative could take the associate degree of applied science recipient and build a program which would lead to teacher certification in technology and a baccalaureate degree. The student who had pursued this type of program would not only have the potential of entering the job market with business and industry, but also have the opportunity to enter the teaching field. Some colleges may work out agreements with trade unions to permit the associate degree and three summer sessions of work experience to serve as fulfilling the requirements of an apprenticeship program.

If universities truly are going to stem the criticism directed at them, they need to begin to communicate with their colleagues at all levels of education and consider the whole picture — what the world looks like now and what the world requires of its labor force. The world needs a growing legion of technical and non-technical people. Certainly, the university sector should be well tuned to the changes which are occurring in pre-kindergarten through grades twelve as schools move into performance based or outcome measured education. Those students will be expected to enter a general education core, and colleges may be ill-equipped to handle them as they continue to rely on the Carnegie units as a measure of high school achievement. With this dialogue there is a need to develop educational plans which include pre-kindergarten programs through life long learning. The community colleges and technical schools must be included when higher education is addressed.

Relationships among community colleges, technical schools and universities would maximize the utilization of limited resources and eliminate the wasting of our human resources. The academies can no longer be oblivious to the changes which are occurring around them. Instead they should be taking the initiative in creating programs needed by business and industry. They should be visionaries and yet be very pragmatic in recognizing that society requires graduates trained and educated who can adapt to a changing environment. As individuals must adapt to a changing environment, our colleges and universities must change.

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By Thomas J. Keefe and John H. Newman

Using Computers Interactively to Overcome Resistance to Learning About Theory

Implications of theoretical statements often escape students. By bringing a personal computer into the classroom, theories can be demonstrated and their importance explained. The following presentation includes example output of interactive demonstrations and suggestions for developing interactive sessions in the classroom.

NO ONE DOUBTS that the computer is an integral part of American life. Computer accessibility in the context of education has changed from limited use of mainframe facilities by some faculty to almost unlimited computing power for all but the most unusual student or faculty member. Within a classroom setting computers are used for a variety of reasons which can be roughly divided under three headings: instructional record keeping, student paper preparation, and drills (Eckerson, 1986). Beyond these uses, the debate begins. A major question exists, however, as to the importance of this technology. Many argue that computers are actually a threat to education (Eckerson, 1986; Noble, 1984). Others suggest that the impact of the technology has been and will probably continue to be minimal (Byrne, 1983; Morrissett, 1982).

This paper proposes an alternative use for computers in the classroom, as a tool for bringing information to bear on teaching theoretical formulations. Computer presentations can be used to demonstrate theories and interactively respond to student questions. This use may satisfy the critics of computer technology in terms of utility of that technology, however, a review of the literature regarding the use of computers to test theory within a classroom setting yielded no documented body of knowledge. It may, also, serve to accomplish other difficult

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but essential tasks such as faculty development.

Opportunity for faculty development. An interactive computer demonstration of a theory sharpens faculty expertise and competency with teaching materials, offers an alternative and effective method for presenting material, and increases the variety of material and the nature of the exposure in a classroom setting to enrich the learning environment.

Opportunity for student learning. Regardless of the discipline, the function and utility of theory is often elusive to students. They are commonly resistant to learning because material is perceived to be esoteric and thus of no practical importance. It is recognized within the academies that, without theory, solutions to problems tend to be time- and space-bounded and thus of little long-term or broad importance, and thus the problem of linking theory with problem solving remains.

Theoretical basis for interactive learning. Feedback, the process of providing immediate response to an issue, is one way of encouraging task learning and performance (e.g., Downs, C.W., Johnson, K.M., & Barge, J.K., 1984; Ilgen, D.R., Fisher, D.D., & Taylor, M.S., 1979; Katz, D., 1975; and Nadler, D.A., 1979). Based on the notion of feedback, an approach to lessening the problem of student resistance to learning theory is the development and use of interactive computer demonstrations. By bringing a computer into a classroom setting, mathematically exact and rapid feedback can be given to student questions. Interactive sessions allow an instructor to answer student questions instantaneously. In this context, interactive means that a computer demonstration is used by an instructor to immediately answer student questions about a particular theory. Students are first given reading assignments and exposed to a lecture dealing with a theory, then the instructor facilitates formulation of questions, and provides answers by demonstrating the theory with data on a computer. As an instructional tool, a computer offers the distinctive advantage of being able to rapidly perform complex mathematical calculations thus allowing students attention to be focused on learning theory rather than details of the process by which answers were reached.

Outline of a Procedure

The following is an outline of a practical method for developing and implementing interactive computer demonstrations.

1. Identification of a suitable theory.

Given the mathematical and graphic nature of computers, only well defined theoretical statements are suitable for presentation. In this case, data is required. Theories with a mathematical basis are demonstrated with actual or hypothetical data presented as graphs. Also, graphic presentation of purely descriptive data can be used to illustrate key theoretical points.

Mathematically based theories are found in a broad array of fields such as mathematics, economics, business, psychology, sociology, biology, and physics. The proposed approach is particularly well suited for explaining and illustrating complex theories which easily hide subtle relationships and implications, in addition to introducing students to crucial theory/research linkage. The process of building a computer demonstration encourages faculty members to develop a greater sense of expertise with the material being taught. When used to answer student questions interactively, a computer demonstration further encourages an instructor to rigorously apply him/herself to gain a better understanding of the meaning and implications of materials being presented.

It is problematic that exposing students to such relationships quickly add a large cognitive load that may further impair learning transfer. By providing rapid feedback to questions of their own making, computer demonstrations can help students to better deal with the new level of complexity.

2. Identification of variables to be used.

Identification and selection of variables to be included in a computer demonstration flows from the theory under consideration. The concern at this stage is to select variables from a long list that may be available which will foster understanding rather than theoretically rigorous and mathematically exact answers. Demonstrations should be constructed from reduced sets of variables by applying the following criteria: availability, relevancy, clarity, brevity and practicality.

Availability. Availability means that demonstrations are limited to those instances for which data is available. This criteria does not create a serious limitation given the possibility of constructing realistic data sets for hypothetical examples. In addition, huge amounts of data are available in the public domain at minimal cost.

Relevancy. Variables need to be included which foster the primary objective of student understanding. Theoretically important variables can be grouped into logical categories. It is not necessary that every variable be included - only variables that exemplify relevant theoretical concerns.

Clarity. Clarity can be satisfied by selecting from those variables within a category that most clearly represent theoretical issues of interest. For example, if the choice is between two competing variables, both of equal relevance, and one can be fully described and understood by students with a two word definition, while the other requires extensive explanation, clarity would demand that the first be selected for inclusion.

Brevity. While a computer handles huge amounts of calculations with great ease, it does not perform interpretation of results. Because of this, not every variable needs to be, or should be, included. The demonstration should be realistic but not too grand. The purpose is to teach, and the instructor must judge whether additional variables aid understanding, or only adds unnecessary complexity.

Practicality. Thus far, variables have been selected on the basis of availability and how well they add to understanding a theory. One last criteria should be used when selecting variables. It is important, as an aid to student understanding, that theoretical examples be of practical importance. A computer demonstration serves to illustrate the theory under consideration with a realistic example. A demonstration should emphasize practicality of results. To bridge the theory-practice gap, variables selected - especially dependent variables - should easily be seen to be of practical importance. Practicality should not be seen as a dimension that is intrinsic to certain variables and absent in others. Those using a computer as an instructional aid must be prepared to demonstrate practicality of a variable and not expect the data to speak for itself.

3. Implementation of a computer application — or when you have a hammer, use it.

A few words about selecting software to construct computerized demonstrations is in order. There seem to be no end to lists of computer programs that can be used to develop an application. Basic (computer program language), Lotus 1-2-3 (registered trademark of Lotus Development Corporation), Mathematica (registered trademark of William Wolfram and Associates), Excel (registered trademark of Microsoft, Incorporated), Quattro-Pro (registered trademark of Borland International, Incorporated), D-Base (registered trademark of Borland International Incorporated), Paradox (registered trademark of Borland International Incorporated), and @Risk (registered trademark of Addison-Wesley Publishing Company Incorporated) are only a few. In general, programs fall into one of several categories. Higher level languages, such as Basic, are robust programs that can be used to write computer programs from scratch.

Spreadsheets, such as Lotus 1-2-3, Quattro-Pro, Excel, are very good at handling limited amounts of information to answer "what-if" type questions. Add-on's, such as @Risk, advertise themselves as taking advantage of spreadsheets to perform risk analysis and modeling. Mathematica is a higher level mathematical simulation and modeling language with a significant learning curve. However, if questions can be reduced to a set of interrelated equations, such modeling languages are well suited for gaining an understanding of how systems operate. Databases, such as Paradox or D-base, are designed to compile and manipulate large volumes of information for later analysis. Finally, programs such as SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences, a registered trademark of SPSS, Incorporated), or SAS (registered trademark of SAS, Incorporated) can be used for sophisticated statistical analysis. These programs tend to be quite useful for manipulating already existing data.

When selecting a computer program to develop a demonstration, ease of use and versatility seem to be inversely related. As a rule, the easier a program is to use the less powerful and versatile it will be. Alternatively, the more versatile and powerful a program the steeper the learning curve associated with that particular routine.

As is often the case, a compromise is in order. Probably the best results occur when a program is chosen that will accomplish the essential tasks demanded without imposing a monumental learning requirement - thus the admonition, if you have a hammer use it. If an instructor is faced with the task of selecting and using a program for the first time, it is important to realize that this recommendation is biased by personal familiarity. The authors would recommend investing in a good spreadsheet. Spreadsheets allow the instructor to present data tables, graphically display part or all of the information in different ways, and are powerful enough to perform limited modeling and analysis functions. At the same time, many of today's graphically oriented spreadsheets allow the development of slide shows composed of a great variety of graph types including text graphs, line graphs, bar charts, and pie charts to mention a few.

Learning to use new programs is always easier with experience gained from other programs. For someone who has just opened the box of a new computer for the first time, learning to input some numbers and construct a slide show using a spreadsheet can be learned in from 10 to 20 hours. Learning to write and debug complex models may require an experienced user to spend 10 to 20 hours. Because of the variability of effort required to integrate computer technology into the classroom teaching, some suggestions are:

Use the right recipe. A computer demonstration is only one of several ingredients available for teaching theory. Computer demonstrations should be used to simplify and clarify. Readings, lectures, at-home problems and computer demonstrations need to be developed in an interrelated fashion, in a way that will reinforce and integrate the message being sent to students. By exposing students to multiple forms of instruction, the likelihood of achieving effective learning transfer is increased. Over the course of presenting a topic (theory) that may span, perhaps, several hours in a classroom, students may be exposed to much verbal detail that may bypass their understanding. As a general rule, to aid understanding and maintain their attention, a computer demonstration based on a clear message containing a few well articulated points seems to be more effective than exposing students to more verbally presented facts and ideas. Use only those ingredients essential to the desired outcome. More is not necessarily better.

Parsimony. As a general rule, computer graphics need to be simplified as much as possible. Keep intermediate calculations and raw data out of sight as much as possible. The instructor wants to channel attention to the theory and illustrate major points rather than exposing students to the complexity of how to make calculations.

The media is the message. Construct and order the presentation of graphics to reveal the message. When graphs of text and numerical information are combined in the same presentation, text based graphs should clearly and simply indicate major points of interest. For example, many spreadsheet programs can be used to prepare bullet charts. These graphs should be constructed to clearly indicate which variables are being manipulated and what major conclusions being drawn from the data. The order of presentation should be made to logically flow from simple factual statements to important practical implications. Likewise, graphs of numerical results should follow in an orderly and logical progression that culminate in an answer that is as unambiguous as possible.

Practice demonstrations. If it is properly used, an interactive computer demonstration is a tool that encourages faculty to prepare and practice. Nothing is more embarrassing than to get unexpected results, or to have a demonstration fail to work at all. This is especially true when student questions are addressed in an interactive demonstration. If the full benefits of performing a computer demonstration are to be enjoyed, the more practice an instructor has the better. As with any other tool, proficiency and ease of use comes with practice.

Potential sources of material. Graphs and tables found in student textbooks are a good source of input for a graphical presentation that has the added benefit of reinforcing already familiar material. Computerized case books are another source. Data bases and examples that come packaged as tutorial material with computer software should not be overlooked.

4. Actual demonstrations of theoretical relationships.

An instructor may spend hours thinking through a demonstration, assembling data and programs before giving the in-class presentation. Despite the time-intensive nature of pre-presentation planning, the actual demonstration often goes rather quickly. It is best to keep computer presentations short, to the point, and closely related to lecture and reading material. Based on experience, a demonstration seems to work best when used in conjunction with other forms of instruction. This variety allows the overall learning experience to assume a fuller context than that offered by the computer demonstration alone. The intent of combining methods is that each modality (e.g., reading, lecture, cases, and demonstration) will serve as reinforcement to others.

Typically, after having lectured, the instructor will ask students to pose questions about the theory being presented. This may require a period of interaction to help a student frame a question in a way that can be demonstrated with available data. Answers are then displayed graphically using a computer. The overall effect of combining teaching modalities is that answers presented in graphic form tend to be more meaningful. Students have been encouraged to think about the material in the process of developing a question, and to further refine their thinking when interpreting results.

Some Examples

The first example was used in an undergraduate human resource management course to explain economic utility of a training program. Spreadsheet "what-if" commands were used to generate a table of data, which was graphed to address questions raised by students.

Example 1

Before funding corporate programs, business decision makers are now asking for economic justification (Cascio, W.F., 1991; Schmidt, F.L., Hunter, J.E., & Pearlman, K., 1982; and Arvey, R.D., & Cole, D.A., 1989). Proposals made by training departments are subject to the same type of funding review process as other departments. The expectation is that training will increase employee performance enough to justify program costs.

If students are to compete as future human resource managers in the corporate arena, they need to learn how to evaluate the economic worth of their proposals. In this case, utility analysis was used to address the question of whether a company would be wasting money if a training program were implemented. Utility analysis (an economic theory) is concerned with estimating the net dollar value of employee performance gains associated with a valid training program after accounting for program costs.

To teach utility analysis, a simulated demonstration was presented following several lectures and assigned readings. The utility equation used to determine economic worth of a training program was based on several variables including size and longevity of training effects. For the in-class presentation, a spreadsheet template was preprogrammed with the appropriate utility equation. Based on student questions and interactions with the instructor, "what-if" analysis was performed in-class. The resulting outcomes were saved as a data table, and instantly presented as a graph on an overhead display.

Student questions. Students were invited to ask "what-if" type questions that focused on the economic feasibility of a hypothetical training program. During the demonstration, a computer provided instant answers to such questions as, "What-if training could be made more effective, will it be more economically useful?" To answer this question, both size of program impacts and length of training effects were varied to demonstrate economic utility of the training program. A graph from the actual utility analysis demonstration is presented as Figure 1.

The graph of the utility analysis displayed in Figure 1 shows several interesting results,

- a training program that causes a 2% gain in employee performance would result in a negative dollar payoff because the 2% gain is not enough to cover program costs,
- a 19% training effect shows that a company will not be wasting money if this training program is implemented.

Also, the importance of the length of the training effect is pointed out,

- for a training program with a 19% gain in employee performance, when a training effect lasts 5 years rather than 1 year, it is more than five times as valuable.

Example 2

The second example was used to discuss sex based stereotypes and could be used as part of a work force diversity, labor economic, or sociology course. In the first example, data

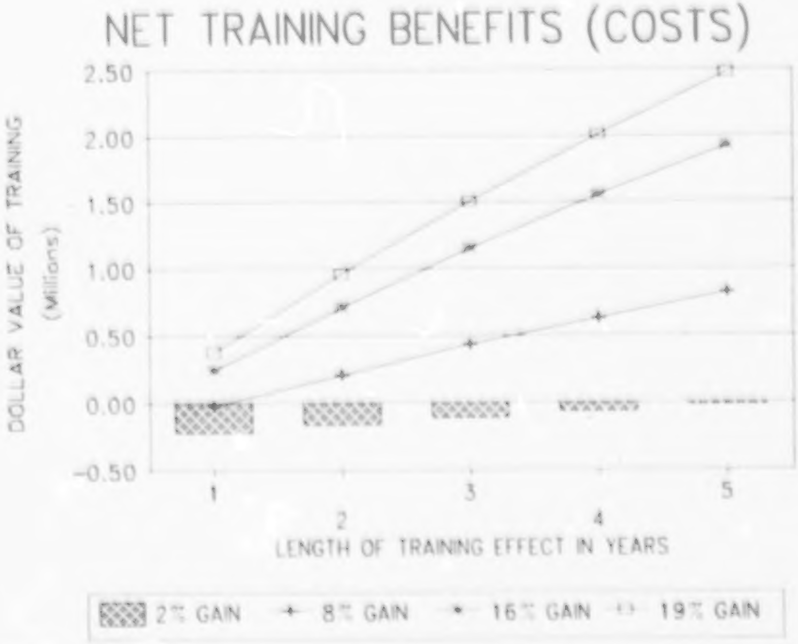

Figure 1

was generated by spreadsheet "what-if" commands. In this example, students were presented with a table of numerical data taken from a text book (Table 1), a discussion of stereotypes, and a discussion of labor force participation rates (LFPR's).

The data table was accompanied by the following discussion. During WWII, many women held high paying factory jobs for the first time. These jobs were formerly held by men who had gone to fight the war. Discussion focused on addressing a public concern that arose after WWII that was directed against working women who had been employed in factories during the war. These women were encouraged to give up their jobs in favor of returning GIs, stay home, and accept their traditional roles as wives and mothers. It was felt that by holding these jobs, women were displacing male bread winners, and having a negative effect on families and society in general. An inspection of Table 1 indicates:

- an overall labor force participation rate (LFPR) that increases across time,
- a sharply increased LFPR for women, and
- a drop in the LFPR for men.

A student asked if these results justified the stereotype of working women. Was there reason to believe that increasing labor force participation by women caused declining LFPR's for men and resulted in negative impacts on families? Were women displacing men as they entered the work force? In order to answer these questions, spreadsheet graphs of the same data were presented, as in Figure 2.

Figure 2 shows LFPR's for men, women, and both sexes combined. An inspection of the graph indicates:

- total labor force participation is steadily increasing with time, and
- gains appears to be coming from women entering the labor force while men appears to be displaced.

Taken together, the interpretation might be that men are loosing jobs to working women.

TABLE 1
Labor Force Participation Rates (LFPR's)

	1890	1947	1983	1995
Males Total	89.7	86.8	76.4	77.3
20-24	90.8	84.9	84.8	66.2
35-44	99.0	98.0	95.2	95.2
55-64	98.2	89.6	69.4	66.5
Females Total	21.0	31.8	52.9	61.3
20-24	32.1	44.9	69.9	85.6
35-44	18.0	36.3	68.7	81.7
55-64	15.7	24.3	41.5	42.3
Total, Both Sexes	56.1	58.9	64.4	68.9

Reynolds, Masters and Moser (1986:21)

These results tend to support the stereotype. However, if displacement of men was or is a real problem, it should be observable in various age categories as well as overall. This would be particularly troublesome if participation for males ages (35 - 44 years) were impacted negatively. For men and women, it is individuals in this category who are right in the middle of family responsibilities. Losses in this category would be particularly troubling to effected families, society and the economy in general. A graph of LFPR's for males and females ages (35 - 44 years) is displayed in Figure 3.

An inspection of Figure 3 clearly indicates:

- labor force participation for males in this category is holding steady across time, and
- participation by females is rapidly progressing.

Taken together, it appears that for men and women, in a very important age category, labor force participation trends are healthy. With respect to LFPR's, men ages (35 - 44 years) are not being displaced by the entrance of women into the work force. Yet, the basic question remains unanswered. Why is the overall LFPR for males declining? Are

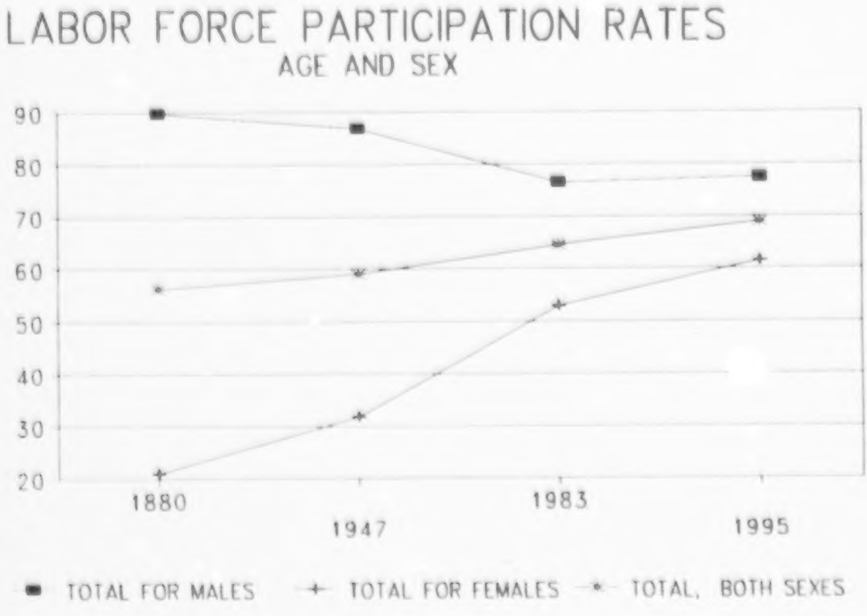

Figure 2

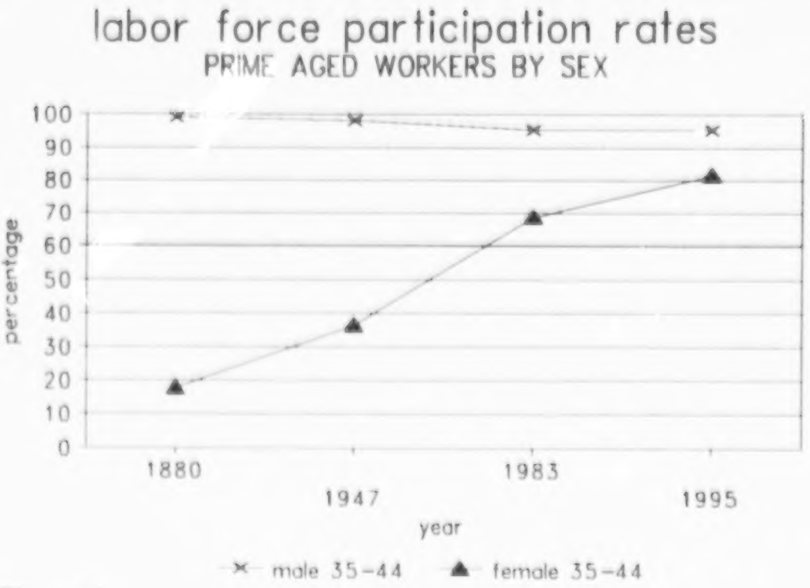

Figure 3

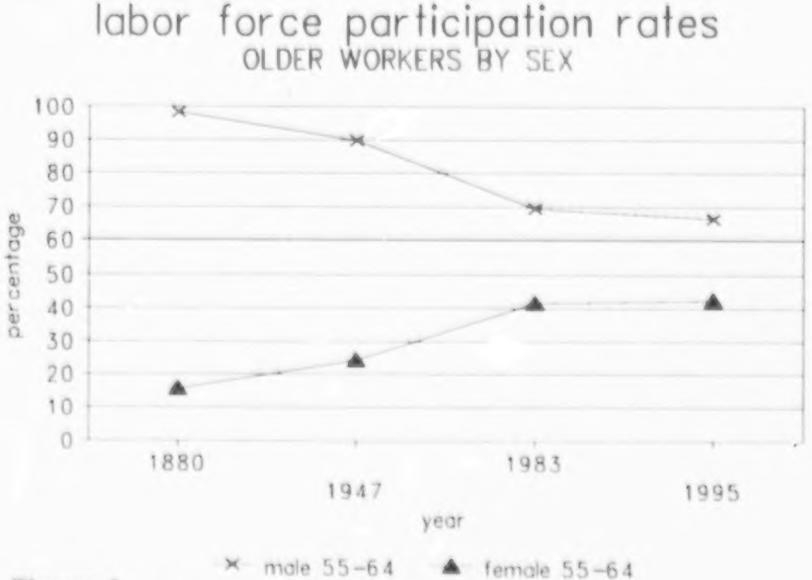

Figure 4

there other explanations buried in Table 1? Figure 4 displays LFPR for older men and women ages (55 - 64 years).

From an inspection of Figure 4, it is clear that:

- participation rates for older males and females appear to be converging upon a rate lower than that for other age groups,
- participation rates for older females appear to be increasing across time,
- older males appear to be reducing their participation across time, and
- the reduction of the male participation rate is particularly pronounced with the onset of social security and disability benefits available for the first time after WWII.

Since older age categories are more likely to have a higher proportion of injuries and disabilities, a logical conclusion might be that the decline in male participation, in large part, is due to older males taking advantage of social benefits that were not in place before WWII. This relationship could then be evaluated by examining data relevant to this new issue demonstrating the ongoing relationship between theory and research.

Conclusions and Implications

Instructors have labored long and hard to bring the importance of theory to their students. Historically, this offering has had the form of an instructor professing and students sometimes believing. This approach has several obvious difficulties. Among them are the fact that the "test" is not of the students making, and often is either so obscure, complex, or both that little pedagogical headway is made. Additionally, students have no investment in the test in that they are passive receivers of information of an instructor's choosing. As such, learning takes the form of passive memorization rather than active thinking.

By introducing material with a computer demonstration as detailed in this paper, two major problems can be overcome. Students must give up the time honored tradition of reactive learning wherein they are recipients of knowledge. They must be prepared for class and their instructor must be clear on what constitutes preparation. Students should no more be expected to think "on their feet" than an instructor should. We have made very clear in this paper about the requirement for an instructor to rehearse rather than leave a presentation to chance alone. Students must be similarly ready for the work. An instructor using this technique is going to have to let go of some old and familiar habits. The old format of lecture, take notes, and give a test just doesn't work with this method. The professorate is going to have to learn to listen and listen well. The success of this project rests on student investment or ownership of the test of theory. By grasping the test, students will then "own and understand" a theory both in terms of meaning and implication.

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BOOK REVIEWS

The New Faculty Member

Here is a title of interest to professional development practitioners are reviewed for the reader.

***The New Faculty Member,* by Robert Boice. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1992, 376 pp, $31.95**

Reviewed by Mary Deane Sorcinelli

Amid recent predictions of increasing problems in recruiting and retaining new professors, what should a thoughtful department chair read to better understand how new faculty can establish successful careers and how senior colleagues can respond to their needs? Robert Boice's book, *The New Faculty Member*, is an excellent candidate for a "required reference" on the subject. It offers a wealth of information on, and an astute approach to, new faculty development.

Boice is presently a professor of psychology at the State University of New York, Stony Brook. In preparing this volume, he draws on the insights he has accumulated in some twenty-five years as a clinical psychologist, teacher of psychology, and faculty developer; and he skillfully integrates what he has learned from a decade of research on the work experiences of faculty, both new and established. The result is a remarkably perceptive and useful volume directed to the broad audience responsible for hiring and nurturing new faculty: chairpersons and senior colleagues, faculty developers, and campus administrators.

Boice's work falls into three parts previewed and interconnected by a theoretical approach he calls the IRSS theory. The IRSS theory includes four fundamental skills and attitudes that Boice feels we need to impart to our new hires: involvement, regimen, self-management and social networks. The theory also helps to organize the reader's thinking about support programs for newcomers.

The book's first part considers the primary obstacles confronting new faculty members—gaining the acceptance of colleagues, establishing teaching styles and skills, and developing habits of writing productivity. The second looks at ways to help new faculty overcome these obstacles, and the third suggests key elements for building an institutional support system for newcomers.

Part One is disheartening as it sketches a fairly bleak profile of new faculty as they attempt to deal with three key issues facing them as newcomers: collegiality, teaching and writing. In the main, new faculty describe themselves as isolated and under-stimulated as colleagues, defensive as teachers and unproductive as writers. As a means of sounding a brighter note, the author discovers and describes lessons learned from a small group of "quick starters"—newcomers who, early on, are unusually successful as colleagues, teachers and writers. He also notes increasing effectiveness among nearly all new faculty members by their third and fourth years on campus.

Part Two moves us from observation to action, from discouragement to hope and enthusiasm. It is comprised of four chapters that chairs may find to be among the most valuable in the book. All four provide a compendium of fresh, carefully thought out and remarkably detailed suggestions for helping new faculty. In Chapter Five, for example, Boice provides a wealth of ideas for mentoring by more experienced colleagues. He then goes one step further and suggests ways to extend mentoring through co-teaching projects (pairing new and more senior colleagues), through collaboration with students (enlisting new faculty as mentors to undergraduate research or teaching assistants) and through collaborating with colleagues as writers.

Chapter Six emphasizes ways of helping new faculty to develop their skills as teachers. Of particular interest are the author's insights on enhancing skills often overlooked (e.g., classroom comfort and communication), as well as his advice on setting up programs for early, informal evaluations from students. This section on early feedback is particularly appealing because it provides the kind of "how to" material that chairs often seek but seldom find.

Chapter Seven sets out a rationale for supporting new faculty as writers and describes a four-step plan for implementing that support through such strategies as establishing ideas, regimen, and comfort and making writing a socially skilled act. This chapter is excellent in its detail and its extensive inventory of interventions that can be used to encourage scholarly writing. In fact, it should be required reading for anyone in any department who wishes to enhance his or her scholarly productivity.

In the last chapter in Part Two, Chapter Eight, Boice explains how chairs and other administrators and colleagues can help new faculty help themselves. He arranges the chapter as a series of ideas on how to encourage new faculty to work on their own development through "self-help programs." A few of the projects seem more apropos for a clinical psychologist then for a less trained chair, faculty developer or administrator (e.g., exploratory projects on self-help with obsessive worrying, bingeing, depression). Other programs, however, such as those that focus on such skills for success as confidence and motivation, task management and social networking, are refreshing and strikingly on target. The author's counsel that self-help programs can serve both new faculty and their colleagues well is particularly incisive. He writes, "We can help those who like to do some or all of the work alone. And we might even save ourselves from trying to do too much."

Part Three describes a range of strategies for building an institutional support system. The first two chapters address new faculty needs at particular career points (from recruitment and orientations to tenure and promotion). The next chapter deals with special populations and offers some excellent suggestions of ways that chairs and other colleagues can provide a good start to women and minorities. The final two chapters discuss the problems of implementing new faculty support programs. Chairs, as well as readers in the field of faculty development, will especially appreciate the descriptions of noteworthy programs, of key principles and lessons learned by successful programs, and of specific strategies for starting and maintaining support programs for new faculty.

The New Faculty Member provides one of the first comprehensive resources on the needs of new faculty and an abundance of practical ideas that individuals and institutions can apply to shape a positive beginning for newcomers. It offers fresh perspectives on supporting new faculty, particularly in the areas of collegiability, teaching and writing. Boice's work will be prized by senior colleagues, chairs, deans, faculty developers and other administrators who desire to gain some understanding of new faculty and to help them to be successful. It should serve as one of the essential references on new and junior faculty for some time to come.

Mary Deane Sorcinelli is the Director, Center for Teaching, University of Massachusetts-Amherst.

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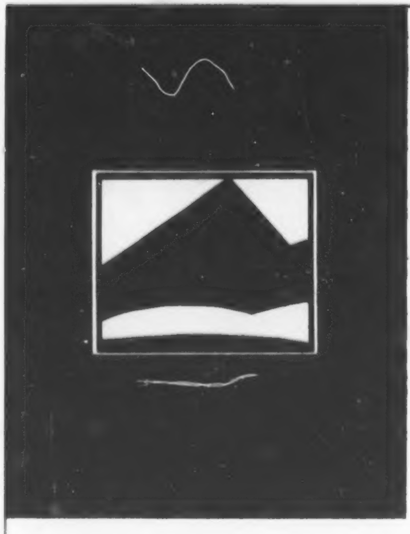

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Teaching and Learning Styles: We are *Not* all the Same!

Some understanding of teaching and learning styles, as explained by Myers Briggs Type Theory, can make us more effective professors.

By Susan A. Holton

In the first class, Professor Holton gives a detailed syllabus, noting exactly what will be covered every day of the semester, complete with all assignments and tests.

In the next class, Professor Snyders says that they will study classical rhetoric, beginning with Ptahhotpe and going as far as they can get in one semester.

In one class, the students must turn in a paper on the assigned date, or face a one grade deduction for each day the paper is late; in another, the paper is due on—or around—the assigned date.

Students are experts at adaptation. From elementary school through college, they encounter vastly different types of teachers. The results of some research on personality type and teaching show that at each level of education, from elementary school through college, the predominate personality type of teachers changes. What that means to the student is that she or he is going to have to adapt to the different approaches of teaching and expectations for learning—or fail.

I believe that some understanding of teaching and learning styles, as explained by Myers Briggs Type Theory, can make us more effective professors. How can type theory help us in the classroom? It can enable us to understand the learning style differences of our students, and to adapt our material to them.

An unexpected joy for me this "season" is that I am going to teach classical rhetorical theory again. My "druthers" would be to have a group of enthusiastic young scholars, all of whom revel in a participative analysis of *Phaedrus* and a comparison of the rhetoric of Plato and Aristotle. But I must face reality—and acknowledge that many are not going to relish my version of the Socratic method.

So I can use type theory to relate more effectively to the myriad of types in my classroom.

First I must realize that my students are either "Introverts" or "Extroverts." The introverts are energized from within; the extroverts from without. In classical

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terms, the introverts would agree that the "unexamined life is not worth living;" the extroverts would argue (with apologies to Socrates) that the "unlived life is not worth examining." In order to meet the learning needs of both, I must provide a balance of opportunities for group work, and for individual reflection. I need to ask a question and give the students a minute (yes, literally) to answer. If I don't do that, then I'll have the extroverts answering each one and the introverts left thinking about the answer to the first question while I am on the third.

I need to also think about the ways in which the students take in information. The "sensors" need concrete facts and details in order to learn; the "intuitives" learn abstractly. If I am talking about life in early Greece, I can to use filmstrips so that the "sensors" can literally see what I am talking about. I need to point out the references to love—or rhetoric—in the *Phaedrus*, and explain how I see the connection. In fact, this type of metaphoric language is *very* difficult for the "sensor" to understand. Because "intuitives" think in relationship and patterns and symbology, these students will revel in the analysis of the charioteer.

Our behavior in class is seen very differently by students with two different preferences for coming to a decision or making judgments. A professor who has a preference for "thinking" will be logical and analytical and will give few comments about the student's performance. On the other hand, the professor with a preference for "feeling" will praise, criticize, support and correct the student. A student with a preference for "thinking" will not be satisfied with the praise, criticism and support; a student who prefers "feeling" will be upset if you only provide rational, logical analysis devoid of personal support.

The last of the preferences is for either "judging" or "perceiving" as ways to interact with the world and to deal with time. Those students with a preference for "judging" need structure and guidelines. Those students appreciate the professor with the specific guidelines. They are likely to have their work done on time—if not early. Those who prefer "perceiving" are more likely to feel imprisoned by structure. The very thing that has made the first student happy will make the second feel trapped! The student who prefers "perceiving" wants to know that you are flexible.

As educators, we need to be aware of the differences in both teaching styles and learning styles. Then we can adapt our classroom work by first being aware of the differences in learning by type, and next by gearing our work not just to the students who are "just like me," but to the entire population who appear before us—eyes brimming with curiosity, and minds ready to engage in learning.

Dr. **Susan A. Holton**, is a Professor of Communication at Bridgewater State College and Coordinator of the

Massachusetts Faculty Development Program. She was a cofounder of the Boston Area Chapter of the Association of Psychological Type (APT), was a former board member of the Northeast APT, and has presented papers at the regional conferences.

For more information on Myers Briggs Type Theory, the author recommends: *People Types and Tiger Stripes* by Gordon Lawrence, or *Please Understand Me* by Kiersey and Bates. She also recommends contacting the Association for Psychological Type, 2720 Northwest 6th St., Gainesville, FL 32609, 904-371-1853.

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Chalk Dust

By Linc. Fisch

What Louis Szathmáry Might Say about College Teaching

A master chef who is willing to share the secrets that "make" his recipes would probably have a few tips for success in the classroom.

I've never met Louis Szathmáry, but I've always had a special feeling for him. For one thing, he and my father (though separated by a generation or two) are *honfitársak*—compatriots—sharing the same Transylvanian hometown back in the old country, Hungary. For another, Louis and I both enjoy the creativity of cooking, even though he is an expert and I am a mere amateur.

Indeed, Louis Szathmáry is a scholar of cooking. His extensive collection of cookbooks going back to the 14th century is now a rare research resource at the University of Iowa. Chef Louis performed his art at The Bakery, a top-rated Chicago restaurant for nearly 30 years. Alas, it closed a few years back—before I could experience all of its continental classics.

But Louis's recipes live on in the several cookbooks he has written. The one I own and prize is *The Chef's Secret Cookbook* (1971, Quadrangle/New York Times Book Co.) in which the master, unlike many chefs, reveals his secrets—at least one and often several for each recipe.

In it, for example, you can learn how to cook green vegetables and have them retain their bright color: cook them uncovered and only to the crisp/tender stage. You can learn how to keep mixtures containing avocado from turning dark: place the pit in the mixture until serving time. When preparing brothy soups, the last bits of fat can be removed by wrapping a damp towel around ice cubes and skimming it lightly across the surface of the liquid. For page after page you can learn the chef's secrets for buying food, preparing it well, and creating tantalizing variations.

Naturally, it came to my mind that a master chef who is willing to share the secrets that "make" his recipes would probably have a few tips for success in the classroom. I say "naturally" because this is not the first occasion on which I've found an association between cooking and teaching; see, for example, "Students as Scrambled Eggs and Other

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Recipes for Teaching" in *Innovation Abstracts*, Vol. VIII, No. 26 (November 7, 1986).

But Louis Szathmáry, a gracious man of many talents, has a busy life now as a restaurant consultant, and it's hard to catch up with him. So what follows is my own speculation on some of the secrets he *might* communicate if he took the time to focus on college teaching. To save space, I omit the recipes and offer only the secrets, one or two tips for each situation.

Lectures. Instead of delivering one long discourse, design your lecture as a series of short scenes, and devise ways at the end of each scene for students to work with the material, clarify it, convert it to long-term memory, and prepare for the next scene.

Discussions. Employ tactics that draw students into active involvement: tapes, film clips, slides, music, and other devices that present challenging images and stir emotions. Ask questions that stimulate response and interaction, such as "Why do you think that?" "What are the implications of Dana's suggestion?" "How do you react to Lee's comment?"

Basic laboratories. Design exercises that offer some personal excitement of accomplishment and discovery. Guide that process through carefully focused and phrased "consider questions" that require students to do a lot of thinking even for relatively simple procedure and outcomes.

Simulation, role-playing, and case studies. Construct cases, scenarios, and exercises based on actual situations in order to promote realistic experience.

Independent and field study. Provide periodic opportunities for a student to interact with others (students or faculty) in order to help distill meaning and significance from the experience.

Reading assignments. Instead of saying only "Read chapter X," suggest what students might look for and focus on; present questions that can be answered by the material to be read.

Examinations. Give individual feedback in writing to each student within one week of the examination.

Slide projection. Program slides in short sequences so that the room is darkened only for brief periods of time.

Overhead projection. Attach a 4x6 card to the mirror of the projector with masking tape. Flip this "light gate" down between transparencies so that the audience is never presented with a blank bright screen or an image that is no longer relevant to what students are being told.

Slides and transparencies. Limit information on each to no more than seven lines, with no more than seven words per line. Enlarge the material to nearly fill the screen when projected.

Television monitors. The optimum size of the screen is roughly equivalent to the number of people viewing it, as well as their distance from the screen. For example, probably no more than 12 people, sitting no farther than 12 feet from the monitor, can see well the image on a 12-inch screen.

Flip charts. Lightly line the sheets with pencil in advance in order to keep the material you write orderly.

Classes of any size. Strive to be able to call each student by name as soon as possible. For some courses, this can be facilitated by shooting Polaroid photos in groups of five or six, with students signing their names below their picture. For large classes, ask a different group of six to eight students to meet with you for a few minutes before each class so that you can get their reactions to assignments, course pace, etc.; in the process, you will learn a lot of names.

Presentations in general. As in the serving of food, presentation is very important to the reception of what you offer. Pay attention to amounts, combinations, contrast, timing, color, and arrangement.

So, armed with these secrets, you will be an excellent teacher, right?

Would you, armed with Louis Szathmáry's cooking secrets, be an excellent chef?

In *The Chef's Secret Cookbook*, Chef Louis responds with a music metaphor: You could learn all the notes and the spectacular cadenzas from a great pianist, yet you yourself could not play a piece like Artur Rubinstein. "You see,...cooking is just like playing the piano—it needs talent, training, and practice," Louis says. "For this is the first secret of good cooking, the most important 'secret ingredients': constant training, constant practice, devotion, and joy in cooking. Yes, you must love cooking to do it right. If you do not, you just suffer."

I'll bet Louis Szathmáry might say much the same about college teaching. The most important "secret ingredients" are constant training, constant practice, devotion, and joy in teaching. You must love teaching to do it right.

Linc. Fisch, an educational writer and workshop leader who lives in Lexington, Kentucky, has been cooking and teaching for well over 30 years, and he still loves both.

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Reporting the latest in professional development activities at the 2-year college, 4-year college, and university levels.

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For Our Readers

"Research Serving Teaching" is New Department

A new department, *Research Serving Teaching*, appears with this issue. The department's editor, Jim Eison, initially developed a periodic publication by the same name at Southeast Missouri State University to stimulate faculty discussion of recent research whose findings can be used to improve classroom instruction, and to encourage faculty to initiate similar research in their own classrooms.

Eison notes that faculty teaching in colleges and universities often experience pressure to be both accomplished classroom instructors and prolific authors of published research. For most, the skillful performance of each requires the investment of considerable time and energy. As a result, faculty may feel obliged to choose between teaching and research.

It should be noted, according to Eison, that these two roles are not mutually exclusive when the classroom is used as a research laboratory and when research questions pertaining to students, faculty, and teaching/learning processes are examined empirically. The need for carefully conducted classroom research is great; the opportunities to publish such research are plentiful; and, when done well, the potential benefits for both the individual faculty member and to the improvement of teaching in higher education are limitless, states Eison.

Widespread interest in Eison's articles has prompted the *Journal* to begin this department. Special thanks are extended to Jim Eison for another great contribution to this publication.

Douglas O. Dollar, Publisher

A Reminder: Academic Year is Adopted for Journal

With the last issue an adjustment was made in the publication schedule for the *Journal*, changing from a calendar-year to an academic-year program. Issues now will be numbered as follows: No. 1, Summer, mailed in July; No. 2, Fall, mailed in October; No. 3, Winter, mailed in January; and, No. 4, Spring, mailed in April. The new schedule allows mailings to occur at more convenient times of the year and conincides with the addition of new departments. The times at which renewal notices are sent out have also been adjusted.

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By Glenn R. Johnson, Lynn M. Burlbaw & Victor L. Willson

Systematic Instruction vs. Lecture

A series of studies involving a Systematic Instruction Model (SIM) have found positive correlations with student achievement and student attitudes, even when "time" required to present material was controlled. The findings support the efficacy of carefully crafted instruction at the college level, portraying a method of instruction which produces consistent student learning that is superior to the dominant method of college instruction, the lecture, with no greater resources required in time or support.

THE LECTURE is one of the primary strategies used by instructors in postsecondary settings; the lecture strategy has a number of different variations (Frederick, 1986). One popular lecture approach is to have students listen to a formal presentation by the instructor, without any interaction between the instructor and the students or among students. However, Bonwell and Eison (1991) contend "that students must do more than just listen ...[they must]... be actively involved" (p. iii).

The above raises an interesting question: "Will achievement scores and student attitudes about instruction be different if content is presented via a formal lecture without interaction and when it is presented using an active learning strategy?"

An Eclectic Systematic Instruction Model for Active Learning

Figure 1 is a graphic presentation of a systematic instruction model. The components of the eclectic systematic instruction model (SIM) emerged from the works of several different researchers.

A SIM lesson begins with a type of advance organizer. Ausubel (1968) described how students benefited when an advance organizer was used. A short reading assignment about a topic, but lacking spe-

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cifics, might be an example of an advance organizer. For SIM, a similar purpose would be served by a broad goal or mission stated at the beginning of a lesson to help students establish a mind set for what was about to happen during the lesson.

Next, a SIM lesson includes a behavioral objective. Mager (1962) wrote about behavioral objectives. For SIM, a circumstance or condition under which the students would perform, a measurable behavior expected from the students, and an anticipated acceptable level of stu-

SYSTEMATIC INSTRUCTION MODEL

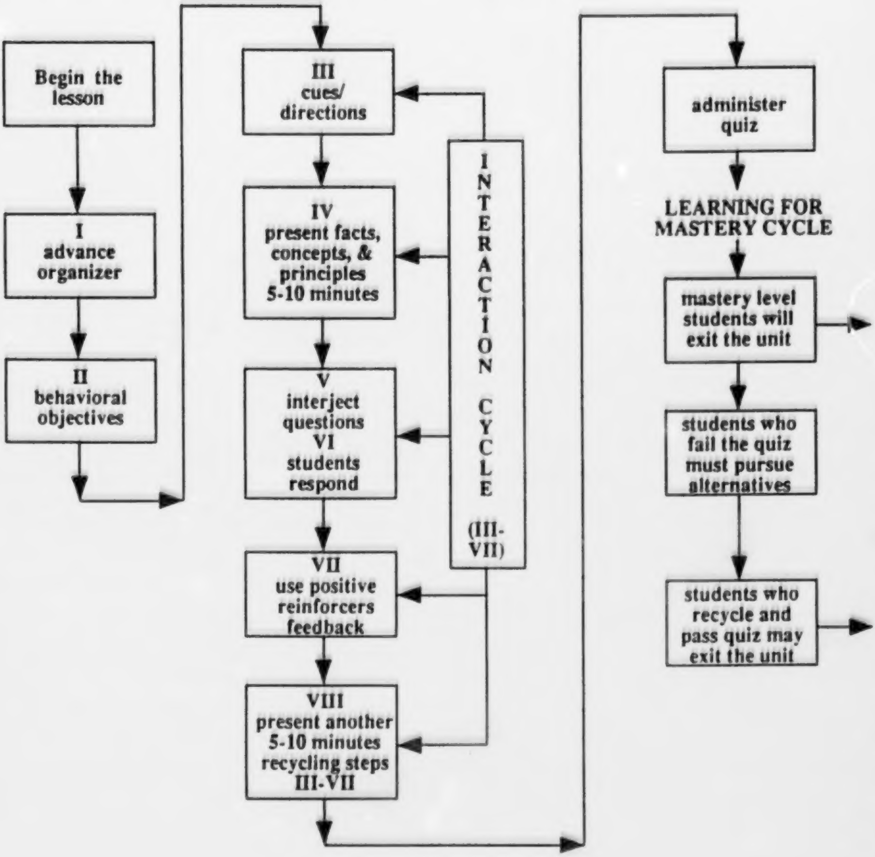
Begin the lesson
I advance organizer
II behavioral objectives
III cues/ directions
IV present facts, concepts, & principles 5-10 minutes
V interject questions VI students respond
VII use positive reinforcers feedback
VIII present another 5-10 minutes recycling steps III-VII
INTERACTION CYCLE (III-VII)
administer quiz
LEARNING FOR MASTERY CYCLE
mastery level students will exit the unit
students who fail the quiz must pursue alternatives
students who recycle and pass quiz may exit the unit

Figure 1

dent performance would make up a behavioral objective.

Cues, positive reinforcement, and corrective feedback are very important components of a SIM lesson. Lysakowski and Walberg (1982) identified cues, student participation, and corrective feedback as positively correlated with successful learning. Bloom (1976) identified cues, positive reinforcement, corrective feedback, and student participation in learning as four critical factors related to successful teaching. These four factors seemed important enough to include in SIM lessons. For SIM, "positive reinforcer" consists of praise statements expressed by an instructor; such statements reward the student for his/her response. "Corrective/feedback" consists of a verbal signal from the instructor that the student's statement is acceptable or unacceptable; for example, saying "yes" or "no" as feedback to the student, without attempting to reward or criticize the student. "Corrective/feedback" also includes the teacher repeating a student's correct response, indicating that the statement was acceptable.

Asking students questions was also deemed important when teaching using SIM. When Rosenshine (1976) reviewed research about teaching, he noted that when instructors asked questions, followed by feedback and subsequent questions, learning became more functional.

Rothkopf (1976) discussed organization and sequence, and he reported that the arrangement of content could produce different results when the same sentences were rearranged in different ways. For SIM, content is presented in an organized, logical, and meaningful manner.

Interaction is important when engaging students in active learning during class time, and the interaction cycle is an important component of SIM. An ample body of knowledge about interaction between students and teachers has emerged, and the findings indicate clearly that interaction plays an important role in student learning. College instructors who were trained in ways to promote interaction reported that such training was useful in their teaching (Johnson, 1976); significant increases in verbal interaction between faculty and students were reported when instructors received such training (Johnson, 1977); significant differences in verbal behavior were also noted in classrooms where instructors taught in different types of settings (Johnson, 1979). Interaction studies involving college physics (Self, 1973) and college calculus (Tubb, 1974) revealed significant differences in student achievement and student attitudes favoring classrooms where instructors were trained in interaction analysis. Interaction analysis also has been shown to increase awareness of inconsistencies between instructional goals and cognitive behavior (Vietor, Brubaker, Milford and Johnson, 1985). Lewis (1986) reported that an interaction analysis system had been used for seven years to help identify "communication problems" in the classroom; it helped faculty members realize that they were teaching "students" and not just "content." Another benefit of interaction analysis is its use in helping faculty identify the interaction patterns which best communicate their objectives effectively.

In addition to positive correlations with achievement and student attitudes, studies revealed that it took two to three times longer to present the predetermined content via a systematic instruction model than by the nonsystematic approach. This finding raised the following question: "If the length of time allocated for the presentation of the same predetermined content to two groups of students, one group receiving the predetermined content via SIM and the other group receiving the predetermined content by a lecture approach without interaction, will student achievement and student attitudes be any different?"

Among the several studies reporting the use of SIM was one that controlled for "time" while also controlling for content and instructor characteristics (Johnson, Burlbaw, and Willson, 1992).

In that 1992 study, students taught by SIM scored slightly higher than the straight lecture group when an achievement test was administered, and the students taught by SIM responded with more positive ratings of the instruction when compared to students enrolled in the straight lecture session.

Summary

The Systematic Instruction Model (SIM) has been studied under various conditions to control all aspects of the teaching process at the college level. Even "time" required to present content via SIM and by straight lecture has been controlled. Together, these studies portray a method of instruction (SIM) which produces consistent student learning that is superior to our dominant method of college instruction, the lecture, with no greater resources required in time or support.

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By Regina Miller, Holly DiBella-McCarthy
& Elizabeth A. McDaniel

Enhancing Teacher Efficacy in College Faculty

At many institutions of higher education, faculty are challenged and sometimes overwhelmed by a generation of students who appear to be underprepared for college. Understanding the concept of teachers' sense of efficacy and its relationship to student achievement can help faculty begin to reverse the effects of low expectations.

COLLEGE FACULTY are challenged at many institutions by a generation of students who appear to be less prepared for college than those in the past. They feel overwhelmed by the challenge of teaching these students. Faculty attitudes have an effect on their teaching behavior, and the behavior and learning of their students. One step toward reversing the effects of low expectations of faculty about underprepared students is to understand the concept of teachers' sense of efficacy and its relationship to student achievement. The two faculty members described here illustrate the two major components of teachers' efficacy.

Professor Greene and Professor Jones are professors at a mid-size university. Both are respected scholars in their disciplines, who are actively engaged in research and service activities on their campus. Since their arrival at the university over a decade ago, they have each taught an impressive array of introductory and upper level courses. Their recent teaching experiences, however, have led them to develop very different attitudes about students, teaching, and themselves.

Professor Greene is not afraid to try new teaching techniques in classes. For the most part, these techniques are met with student approval. When they are not, she revises approaches to meet the varying needs, abilities, and backgrounds of her students. Even though colleagues contend that students are not as prepared for or interested in learning as they used to be, Profes-

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sor Greene believes that with the right teaching techniques her students will learn and apply their learning to real life situations. In her view, the role of the professor is to motivate individual students.

Based on past teaching experiences, Professor Jones is confident in both her mastery of subject matter and teaching techniques. However, during the past year, she has become disheartened by student responses in her classes. She attributes recent failures to stimulate enthusiasm for the class material to students' lack of adequate pre-college preparation and their low motivation for learning. She spends less time on lesson preparation and relies more on the textbook to teach. Professor Jones feels if students can't meet the course expectations, they are not "college material."

The Theory of Self-Efficacy Applied to Educators

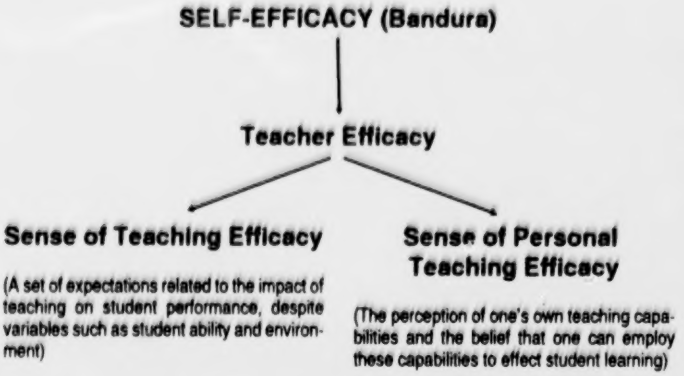
Professor Greene is confident in students' abilities to learn (high teaching efficacy) and in her competence to teach them (high personal teaching efficacy). Professor Jones, while still believing that she is a talented and competent teacher (high personal teaching efficacy), doubts that students can meet college expectations (low teaching efficacy). She has little confidence that the students can learn because they are not prepared or motivated for college academics. Faculty members like Professor Jones are convinced that there is little that they can do to teach students with low motivation, learning disabilities, and socioeconomic disadvantages.

Bandura (1977, 1982) originated the term self-efficacy to explain how a person develops an expectation of efficacy, that is, a belief that actions will lead to desired outcomes and one possesses these skills and can use them in a particular situation. People who have confidence in an outcome and who possess the requisite skills and assurance are more likely to mobilize the effort needed to succeed. Mastery further strengthens their assurance or sense of efficacy. Professor Greene and Professor Jones began their teaching careers possessing the necessary competencies for teaching, but their years of teaching experience have led to very different perspectives. These differences might be explained by examining the expectancy construct of teachers' sense of efficacy.

The application of Bandura's theory to elementary and secondary teaching was first examined by two Rand Corporation Studies. In an evaluation of a reading program, student increases in reading achievement were reported to be strongly dependent on their teacher's sense of efficacy (Armor, Conry-Oseguera, Cox, King, McDonnell, Pascal, Pauly & Zellman, 1976). In the second study, teachers' attitudes about their own professional competence appeared to have major effects on learning outcomes (Berman, McLaughlin, Bass, Pauly, and Zellman, 1977).

A sense of teaching efficacy is that set of expectations related to the impact of teaching on student performance, despite variables such as student ability and environment (Ashton and Webb,1986). A teacher's sense of personal teaching efficacy is the perception of one's own teaching capabilities and the belief that one can employ these capabilities to effect student learning. This belief influences teacher motivation and effort, teacher-student interactions, and student achievement. (See Figure 1 below.)

Studies comparing teachers with high and low efficacy found that low efficacy teachers attribute low-achieving students' problems to students' lack of ability or poor background rather than to teachers' ability. Low-efficacy teachers tend to accept greater responsibility for success than failure. This attribution helps teachers handle the frustration that low-achieving students pose to their feelings of competence. They can maintain their sense of competence if they believe that there is little they, or any other teacher, can do to prevent failure (Webb, 1982). Ashton, Webb, and Doda (1983) found several differences in teacher behavior in the two groups. More high than low efficacy teachers maintain high academic standards, have clear expectations for students, concentrate on academic instruction, maintain on-task behavior, and demonstrate "with-it-ness," the ability to attend to many dimensions of the classroom simultaneously. A secure and supportive classroom environment is combined with a strong academic orientation.


SELF-EFFICACY (Bandura)
Teacher Efficacy
Sense of Teaching Efficacy
(A set of expectations related to the impact of teaching on student performance, despite variables such as student ability and environment)
Sense of Personal Teaching Efficacy
(The perception of one's own teaching capabilities and the belief that one can employ these capabilities to effect student learning)

Applied to Professors Mentioned in Article

Green	HIGH	HIGH
Jones	LOW	HIGH

FIGURE 1

While teachers' sense of efficacy can affect student achievement, student achievement may also be an important moderator of the impact of teachers' sense of efficacy. Teachers' sense of efficacy has been found to have a more powerful impact on low-achieving students because low-achieving students feel less positive about their academic competency and are less certain about their future success than are high achieving students. This may be because they are more vulnerable to their teachers' beliefs, and teachers who do not feel efficacious may be especially likely to communicate low expectations to low-achieving students (Midgley, Feldlaufer, and Eccles, 1989).

Implications for College Faculty

Studies of efficacy in college faculty have explored academic self-efficacy in relation to one's ability to perform various tasks classified as research, service, and teaching in a university setting (Landino and Owen, 1988; Vasil, 1992). Both studies found that research self-efficacy was positively correlated with research productivity and that male and female faculty differ in research self-efficacy. Females are less confident than males in research tasks and more confident than males in teaching tasks, though not statistically so (Schoen and Winocur, 1988).

Although the research on the efficacy of college faculty has not focused on teaching, the theory of teachers' efficacy can be helpful in understanding our behavior and its effects on college student achievement. College faculty members are experts in their disciplines, but few have formal preparation for their roles as teachers. For the most part they were motivated learners and high achievers who profited from traditional modes of instruction. They remember what they were like as students, and tend to teach the way they were taught. Now they are faced with increasing numbers of students who were not academic "stars" in high school, who come unprepared for the challenges and rigors of college, and may not have strong motivation for learning for its own sake. A very common response when one fails to motivate, stimulate, or teach these students is to blame the students. Some college faculty continue to believe that they are good teachers, but the students cannot learn (high personal teaching efficacy and low teaching efficacy), while others might feel that the students can learn (high teaching efficacy), but that they lack the skills to teach them (low personal teaching efficacy). In both cases, college faculty members and their students are frustrated and discouraged.

Instead of blaming themselves or their students, faculty can look for creative solutions to instructional problems. Perhaps alternative methods and instructional formats might work better for these students than the lecture method that seemed to work well for previous generations of students. Perhaps new kinds of assignments and assessment measures would motivate and challenge students to learn. Perhaps the students are capable of doing college work if it were presented differently. Perhaps if more college faculty members believed that students had the potential, students would have higher rates of success. What follows are some concrete suggestions for turning student deficiencies into instructional challenges and successes.

Assess Students' Motivational, Attitudinal and Academic Entering Characteristics

Students in Professor Greene's classes are enthusiastic and cooperative during the learning process. They feel secure in her dedication to the subject and her support of them. A teacher's awareness of the factors that influence student motivation, attitudes, and command of subject matter contributes to a high sense of teaching efficacy. At the beginning of the course, a simple pretest presented in oral or written form helps the professor to assess if students view the course content as valuable, have confidence in their ability to succeed, and have the requisite background knowledge they need. The professor can use the data gathered to modify the course to meet student needs. Professor Jones is experiencing the frustration of loving her subject, but is unable to motivate the students to relate to and learn the subject. Motivation for learning in college courses is purposeful engagement in classroom tasks and study, to master concepts and skills (McMillan and Forsyth, 1991, p. 39). To enhance students' motivation, Professor Jones can help students to develop personal academic goals which parallel the course goals, and to outline how they intend to achieve these goals. Taking time to listen, field questions, offer feedback, and remain open to student suggestions regarding course content and method of presentation contributes to a responsive classroom environment (McDaniel and DiBella-McCarthy, 1989).

Create a Need to Know

Students often balk at being required to master academic content they feel has no relevance for their lives. Whatever the subject being taught, it is up to the faculty member to demonstrate to the students that the content of the course does have relevance. One way to stimulate student motivation is to create a need to know a subject or body of knowledge. Professor Greene creates a need to know by using application tasks and assignments that involve the student in the issues being studied. Students are challenged to think individually or in small groups about an application of learning that is relevant to their lives. Although her love for the subject matter rubs off on students from time to time, the most appropriate way to assure that each student wants to learn is to establish relevance.

Help Students Move From Extrinsic to Intrinsic Motivation

Often students come to the college conditioned to function in ways that do not encourage intrinsic motivation. Students are more likely to be motivated if their innate needs are being met, if they see value in what they are learning, and if they believe they can succeed while their innate needs are being met (Forsyth and McMillan, 1991). For many new college students, past school experience was dictated by teacher and parental direction with very little concern given to what the student wanted to get out of the experience or whether the experience was even appropriate for that particular student. Under these conditions, extrinsic motivation may be the only way to get a student to engage in academic activities. With this type of motivation, student engagement is minimal and at best the student is a passive learner. Such a student in a college classroom wants to know what he/she has to do to receive the minimum grade. In this case, the professor needs to be aware that the student is not intrinsically motivated, but there are things that she can do to shift the student focus from extrinsic to intrinsic motivation. Students often respond positively to tests and others forms of assessment that inform them of their accomplishments (Forsyth and McMillan, 1991).

Professor Greene uses application assignments to foster intrinsic motivation. For example, students of sociology theory debate the many sides of federal family leave legislation. The student and the professor benefit when both become motivated and more engaged in the learning process. Professor Greene also knows that she needs to make course content relevant to students' lives and to develop relationships with students in and out of class. She becomes a role model as a learner and helps to move students from purely extrinsic to intrinsic motivation.

Provide Alternates to Traditional Lecture to Maintain High Rates of Student Engagement

Students typically are not actively engaged in traditional lectures; alternative teaching strategies may stimulate student motivation and increase their engagement in learning. Student motivation and engagement contribute to the instructor's positive sense of efficacy. Instructors with high personal teaching efficacy match their skills and talents to the needs of individual students. Professor Greene realizes that students who are given clear objectives at the start of each class session become more engaged in the learning process because they stay focused, organized, and connected to the course content. The professor knows that if students are presented with new material in a variety of formats, all learning styles will be accommodated, so all students can succeed. Modeling and explicitly demonstrating connections among concepts also help to maintain high rates of student engagement.

Instructors with high teaching efficacy maintain high academic standards and do not feel that alternative teaching techniques compromise the quality of education they deliver. These instructors recognize the power of teaching and its potential for mitigating social, psychological and economic disadvantages. Although a lecture format is sometimes appropriate for conveying course content, Professor Jones might use students' personal interests and/or solicit community resources to facilitate student motivation and knowledge. For example, small groups of students might respond to current literature and use debates, audio visuals, and guest presenters to share their insights with the class. Building trust and teaching to personal interests both motivates students and addresses their needs. Efficacious instructors know what they do well and find that learning outcomes justify their efforts.

Initiate and Maintain a Program of Frequent Assessment and Feedback

Students require feedback in order to know how well they are doing in the course and how much of the material they have mastered and can apply. The feedback must be based on frequent assessment of various kinds because some students perform better on one type of assessment than another. These assessments also allow the professor to determine how well the course meets students' personal academic objectives.

Assessment of and feedback to students can also serve as feedback to faculty on how well they are doing (Miller and McDaniel, 1989). Typically, feedback to faculty takes place at the end of a semester in final exams or papers, and through student course evaluations. Professor Jones relies on these types of assessment and feedback which do not allow her to modify either teaching style, assignments, or course content to meet the needs of students in the class. In order for adjustments in pace, format, or focus to occur, assessment needs to begin at the start of the semester and continue at frequent intervals during the semester. Cross and Angelo offer a wide array of assessment techniques that provide valuable feedback to students and faculty alike (1993).

Professor Greene knows that one way to engage students in self-assessment is to ask them to reflect on something they have read or on an aspect of class discussion. Sometimes this practice takes the shape of journal entries. Students can periodically evaluate their own journal entries and reflect on length and content of entries as measures of their own involvement in the course material. The professor can respond to these personal reflections to help students expand on their thoughts, correct misconceptions, and refer them to additional material on the topic.

Learners need feedback early and often. To become independent, they also need to learn how to give themselves feedback (Angelo, 1993). Assessment and feedback should be seen as positive and not punitive. When it comes frequently, students become accustomed to it. When it takes place only at midterm and finals, it is often threatening and counterproductive to learning.

Identify Instructional Support Systems for Student Referral

Many college students do not know where to turn for the academic and emotional support they need. All too often students do not seek available college resources, or wonder how they can get extra help until they are "in trouble" academically. Efficacious instructors recognize that promoting campus and community services is part of their commitment to students. They know it is their responsibility to become aware of resources offered by the college or university. Libraries, learning centers, student tutors, and computer labs can be used effectively as academic support systems for some students. Promotion of and instruction in metacognitive and organizational strategies related to course content are appropriate and useful. Professors must also consider that many students may not realize how their emotions affect motivation. Referral to student support groups, health care facilities, interest clubs, and community service organizations can help students through various emotional challenges.

Conclusion

An understanding of the concept of teachers' sense of efficacy can be of great benefit to college faculty. The theory is action-oriented, because it focuses on skill development and on enhanced confidence in one's ability to accomplish a goal. Although some faculty blame the students' lack of motivation or low socioeconomic status for their students' lack of progress, many faculty are not confident in their ability to teach these students.

To avoid the trap of blaming students for their lack of achievement, college professors like Professor Jones need to analyze their own teaching to identify the elements that produce results and those that can be made more effective. This action-oriented approach can be the focus of new faculty development activities leading to change in faculty attitudes and behavior and student achievement.

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Organizational Triple-Teaming to Improve Learning

Erie Community College has linked its outcomes assessment, curriculum review, and faculty development functions to form a team approach for the improvement of teaching and learning. Assessment and curriculum planning activities play a major role in determining the agenda of the Teaching Resource Center.

FOR MORE THAN A DECADE efforts to improve teaching and learning have included outcomes assessment, extensive revision of curricula, and a wide variety of faculty development programs. Typically these three initiatives have operated in isolation from each other.

Engleberg (1991) reports that needs assessment is the essential element for designing effective faculty development programs. Needs assessment may take the form of surveys, focus groups, statistical analysis, or evaluation of faculty performance. Program review, a form of assessment that promotes institutional change and improvement, can also provide the data needed for planning faculty development activities. Erie Community College believes that linkages among faculty development, program review, and curriculum development provide a model for enhancing student learning.

Faculty Development

Historically, faculty and staff development at the Erie Community College North Campus consisted of ongoing workshops organized by a human resources development committee. The composition of the committee was broad-based, including faculty, clerical staff, blue-collar workers, and administrators. As a result, programming was not focused, falling into such categories as teaching, computer literacy, wellness, and personal growth.

By the late 1980s it became clear that more effort would have to be

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devoted to improvement of teaching and learning. It was decided to create Teaching Resource Centers (TRCs) on each of Erie Community College's three campuses.

Teaching Resource Centers are staffed by a faculty member, whose teaching load is partially reassigned, and a part-time secretary. The centers, which began operations in the Spring semester of 1991, house reading materials about teaching and have facilities for playback of video tapes of workshops and teleconferences. In addition to being drop-in centers, the TRCs are responsible for planning and implementing workshops and seminars designed to improve teaching and learning.

The North Campus Teaching Resource Center provides training support for departments, as they undergo the program review process. Similarly, as departments make curriculum revisions and develop new courses, the Teaching Resource Center offers consultation on how to properly format and write course outlines and write objectives in measurable behavioral terms. Currently, the Teaching Resource Center is emphasizing programs in cooperative learning, classroom research, learning styles, orientation and mentoring of new faculty, and infusion of general education and writing across the curriculum.

Academic Planning

Over the years, a number of faculty have had a portion of their workload reassigned from teaching to administrative duties as committee chairs and as coordinators of various programs. These faculty chairs and coordinators have become known as quasi-administrators. With this new structure a new challenge became apparent to the campus academic leadership. Specifically, the challenge involved integrating the functions of the quasi-administrative team into campus academic operations. A mechanism was needed to tie together all of the campus components that directly impact the management of student learning outcomes.

To meet this challenge, the campus academic planning subcommittee, chaired by the Campus Academic Dean, was restructured to include the faculty who chair the Curriculum and Program Review committees, Coordinator of the TRC, and administrators in charge of academic programs. These individuals meet regularly during the academic year to develop and execute campus academic planning actions. Planning objectives and actions are developed with a shared vision related to the improvement of student learning outcomes. The academic plan is shared with campus department chairs who communicate learning improvement actions to the faculty.

Having the Curriculum Chair, Program Review Chair, and Teaching Resource Center Coordinator all serving on the same committee allowed for the curriculum development process and program assessment process to identify the needs which the faculty development process could satisfy. Additionally, the TRC Coordinator attends Curriculum and Program Review meetings and also maintains informal contact with those committee chairs. This structure is indicated in Figure 1.

Program Review

In program review, departments identify concerns in a self-study. An action agenda is prepared, based on the departmental concerns, and various individuals are identified as responsible parties to effect the agenda. Responsible parties may include faculty, assistant deans, and the Coordinator of the Teaching Resource Center.

The primary mission of Program Review is to insure that the data used in each review is measuring or related to student learning outcomes. The measurements should evaluate what students are supposed to learn, how well they are learning it, and how the institution knows of this learning (Commission on Higher Education, 1990, p. 2). The outcome of the review process must be an ongoing cycle of assessment that produces annual academic action plans for each program, thereby enabling continuous improvement in student learning.

The focus of program review is improved student learning. Accordingly, program review looks at course content, course completion rates, rate of student transfer to senior institutions, and employer satisfaction surveys. When the review reveals an area needing improvement that is within the scope of faculty development, the TRC Coordinator is designated to assist the department faculty in correcting the deficiency.

Curriculum Development

The Chair of the Curriculum Committee serves as a resource for program review by reviewing course outlines and assisting in defining student outcomes. The Curriculum Chair also assists the TRC by conducting workshops to train faculty in writing course outlines and objectives and by conducting DACUM (Developing a Curriculum) workshops to assist departments in curriculum revision and development. DACUM is a process of occupational analysis that produces a chart of duties and tasks that serve as a foundation for the development of a curriculum. The TRC provided the financial support for the training of three DACUM Facilitators including the Curriculum Committee Chair.

The Process Illustrated

As an example of the process, actual action agenda items from the self studies of several, different departments will be combined to form an example of the program review of a single, hypothetical academic department. This case study will illustrate several weaknesses which include: failure to write course objectives in measurable behavioral terms, failure to link general education competencies to course objectives in the course outline, high

Triple Team Structure

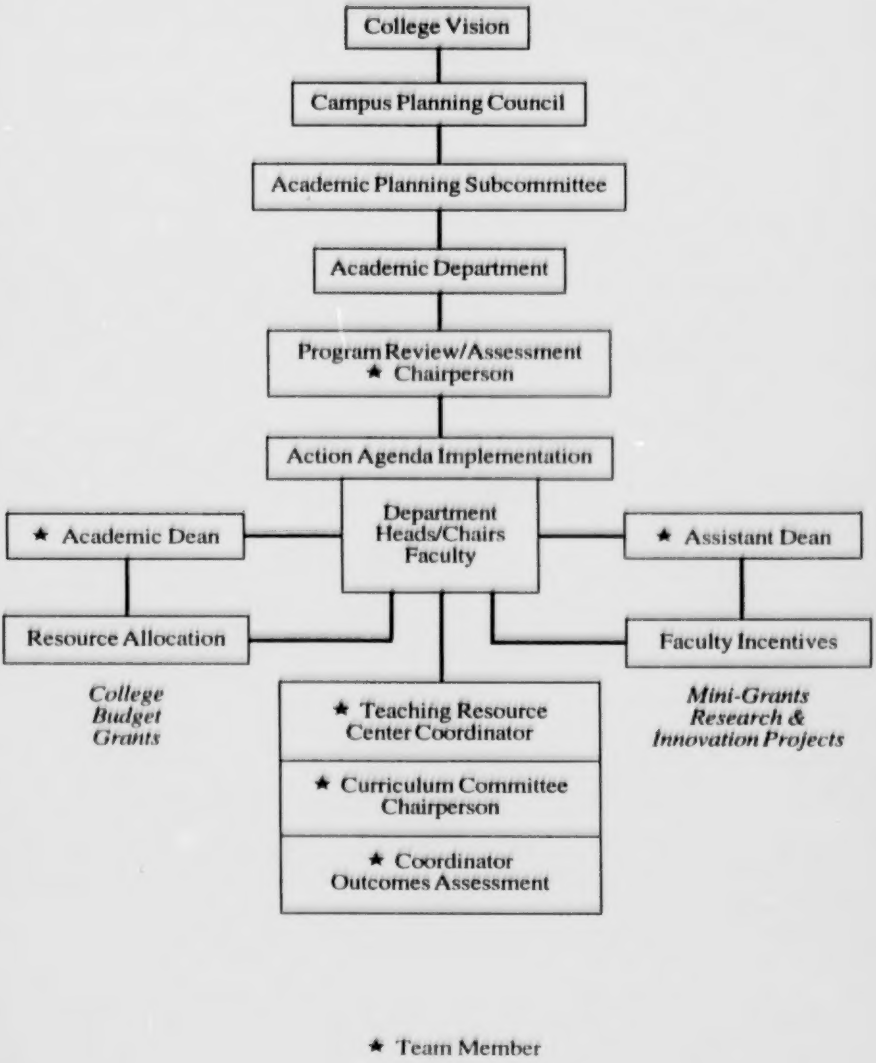
College Vision
Campus Planning Council
Academic Planning Subcommittee
Academic Department
Program Review/Assessment
★ Chairperson
Action Agenda Implementation
★ Academic Dean
Department Heads/Chairs Faculty
★ Assistant Dean
Resource Allocation
Faculty Incentives
College Budget Grants
★ Teaching Resource Center Coordinator
★ Curriculum Committee Chairperson
★ Coordinator Outcomes Assessment
Mini-Grants Research & Innovation Projects
★ Team Member

FIGURE 1

attrition rate, lack of a capstone activity to measure successful accomplishment of the published program competencies, and a need to update the curriculum. The task of the TRC coordinator was to devise a plan to assist the faculty of the department to correct the deficiencies within a reasonable amount of time.

The first step of the process is to conduct a DACUM workshop for the cited department. This process identifies a set of duties and tasks specific to a given job title which may be a foundation for program competencies and course objectives. Further analysis can also identify the literacy component of critical tasks. This information is crucial for determining the general education courses necessary for success in a given program.

The next workshop series involves the departmental faculty in writing the program competencies and course objectives in behavioral terms that reflect the above outcomes.

This stage of the process is conducted by the Curriculum Committee Chair. The next stage is to assist the departmental faculty in the development of a capstone activity. Should the department choose to adopt the portfolio method of assessment, the resource person for this stage of the process, the Coordinator of Outcomes Assessment, instructs the department in the design, implementation, and data analysis methodology for portfolio type capstone activities.

Finally, the problem of high attrition is addressed by the department chair who analyzes data pertaining to the types of students who fail to persist. Then, the department chair, with the assistance of the Teaching Resource Center Coordinator, develops intervention appropriate to that group. These intervention strategies have included instructing the faculty in learning styles, cooperative learning, and classroom research.

Conclusion

The program review (self-study) process, Campus Curriculum Committee, and Teaching Resource Center are all part of a network (Figure 1) used to improve teaching and learning. The Chairpersons of the Program Review and Curriculum Committees meet regularly with the Coordinator of the Teaching Resource Center to discuss ways to implement action plans for the programs undergoing review and therefore, to enhance student learning through faculty development.

Prior to the implementation of the campus model, "Organizational Triple-Teaming to Improve Learning," the college's approach was somewhat uncoordinated and fragmented. Academic administrative offices, planning committees, program review, and curriculum development, had little or no coordination, organization, or communication linkages.

Operations and working behaviors were governed by the instructions and decisions issued by administrative supervisors. Today, a communication network of information and advice is present. Additionally, interaction between academic administrators and faculty was vertical-between supervisor and subordinate. The organizational triple-teaming model allowed those who are most informed and capable to be empowered; that is, the best authority is settled by consensus.

Moreover, reports to describe student progress used very little supporting documentation, and measurable student outcomes. Student progress is now reported through the Office of Institutional Research and documented via a computerized data base in terms of measurable student outcomes. A hierarchical structure of control, authority, and communication has been transformed into a network structure of process control, authority, communication, and empowerment.

Erie Community College has linked its outcomes assessment, curriculum review, and faculty development functions to form a team approach for the improvement of teaching and learning. Assessment and curriculum planning activities play a major role in determining the agenda of the Campus Teaching Resource Center.

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By Nasrin Shahinpoor & Bernard Matt

Global Issues Pedagogy

The authors describe an innovative first-year required international course designed by 12 faculty members from several disciplines at Wilmington College. The course goals (the development of values, critical thinking and action) were met through a course design constructed around dialogue, experiential learning, and writing. Techniques for teaching the course and anecdotal information is presented.

WILMINGTON COLLEGE is a four-year, career-oriented liberal arts college located in southwest Ohio. The college consists of a main campus with approximately 950 traditional-aged students and several branch campuses: Warren and Lebanon Correctional Institutions have 250 male students each, Franklin pre-release has approximately 60 female students, and the Cincinnati Branch has 400 non-traditional students.

The main campus offers a variety of professional and academic majors, but the branch campuses offer mainly business and human service programs at both the associate and baccalaureate levels. Students are required to fulfill approximately 40 hours in general education of which twelve hours are devoted to international courses. One course is required of all first year students and another in the senior year. The remaining requirement is fulfilled by a student taking two of several courses designated as international offered in several disciplines. The mission statement of Wilmington, a Quaker-affiliated institution, stresses global citizenship and commitment to social justice, peacemaking and reconciliation.

Twelve faculty members from agriculture and biology, social sciences and humanities gathered in May, 1991, to plan a new course for first year students, the Seminar on Global Issues and Awareness. This course was to be the first of two required and two elective courses fulfilling the international knowledge component of the college's core curriculum. The week-long planning sessions included a team-building exercise led by the education department, consultation with Skills Cen-

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ter faculty and members of the English department, a day-long workshop implemented by the education department, and self-directed exercises.

Designed to stress the development of values, critical thinking, and action, the course was constructed to be a seminar (with enrollment limited to between 15 and 18 students) in which experiential learning was to be a major focus. The pedagogy would stress dialogue, experiential learning, and writing. A common text was to be used in all sections with the agreement that 75% of the readings come from it; however, all experiential learning activities were to be similar at all of the college's sites.

The results of these sessions led to the August, 1991, initiation of a new first-year international course. Today, the course is being presented to students on all of the college's campuses: the main campus with 250 first-year students, Warren and Lebanon Correctional institutions with 200 first-year students, Franklin with 30, and Cincinnati with 20 beginning students. The purpose of this presentation is to summarize the pedagogical methods used in the Global Issues course and to provide anecdotal evidence of its overwhelming success.

Dialogue

The seminar design of the Global Issues course highlights the college's commitment to the development of dialogue as both a vital communication skill and an essential community-building interpersonal skill. Instructors construct dialogues so that their pedagogy embodies two interconnected goals: one aim being critical examination of both textual information and the views expressed by all members of the seminar; and the other equally important aim being an engagement of the values embedded in the body of information as well as those articulated by students and instructor.

One result of leading and modeling this kind of dialogue is the development of a community of inquiry in which an atmosphere of respect, tolerance, and compassion make possible vigorous and thoughtful academic and interpersonal exchange. Participation in the discussion process is required and students are assessed on their class performance on a regular basis.

Although general discussion techniques are the basis of most classes, a number of other techniques have been used to enhance these discussion skills. Small group, cooperative learning techniques are used to facilitate learning and the building of a community of inquiry in the seminar. Students often debate issues; sometimes being asked to give reasoned arguments for positions they personally hold and at other times instructed to advocate positions with which they personally disagree. The debates are then assessed by other students who make judgments based on the critical strength, and ethical and academic content of the arguments.

In the use of case studies especially, or in the course of the examination of a shared text, students role play to increase their critical thinking abilities, to understand values not necessarily their own, and to articulate respectfully positions that build a responsible community. A number of instructors have asked students to lead discussions following the presentation of their papers or to prepare an article with an eye toward developing a discussion of it. On a somewhat grander scale, for the Spring semester of 1993, a week-long series of activities was planned that involved Global Issues students and faculty, the general student body and international students. In the future more forums will be created for students to present papers, hold debates, speak on panel sessions, show and discuss films, perform and display creative projects, and share in meals.

Experiential Learning

Reported by students as being one of the most exciting and thought-provoking components of the Global Issues course has been the variety of activities that constitute the experiential learning component. On the main campus, a trip to an outdoor training facility that simulates the Underground Railroad is the major activity. Here students are guided on a seven-stage journey during which they are treated as slaves and undergo a variety of experiences that 1850s runaways in the United States might have had to endure on their flight north. These experiences are tied into the Global Issues seminar in discussions and written assignments concerning human rights, economic destitution, immigration, and conflict-issues.

In the correctional institutions where students cannot be taken on such trips other simulations have been developed. One is entitled the "Global Village." Here students are designated as representatives of countries or groups of persons whom they have studied. Major problems have been identified and, in a carefully structured forum, students are asked to perform specific tasks. Where class sizes do not permit this simulation, especially in the women's correctional institution and at the branch campus, another simulation was designed in which Haiti is the basis of a case study and an exercise in conflict resolution. All the faculty teaching the courses are involved in actual simulations but several additional faculty regularly participate; indeed, nearly a third of the faculty (and some administrators) have participated in these simulations.

Important in the correctional institutions and at the branch is the international dinner. International students and faculty are invited to prepare food from their homeland. The meal is followed by a general discussion in which a variety of international issues are explored. On campus, international students staffed information booths, performed a variety show highlighting cultural activities, and prepared an international meal. This three-day-long festival was not only attended by Global Issues students and faculty, but was open to the college and civic community.

The main campus in the last years has been the site of the Westheimer Peace Symposium, a day-long series of lectures and discussion that have attracted major national and international speakers. At one correctional institution, a Global Issues faculty member and an on-site administrator organized a day-long series using local experts in international issues. Seminar assignments are designed to prepare students for these required events, and to integrate the experiences of these symposia into class discussions. In addition to attendance at a symposium, students are required to see two out of class movies: *El Norte* and *Gandhi*.

The use of audio-visual material is pervasive in the course to enhance a visual experience of global problems and other cultures. This dimension is most important to students at the correctional institutions. Here too several outside speakers, with a preference for those who are international or who have extensive international experience, are invited to present material and discuss with students. Other innovative experiences have been designed by faculty on the main campus where such opportunities are more easily accomplished. For example, regularly visited is the campus Peace Studies Resource Center which houses the largest non-Japanese collection concerning the bombing of Hiroshima and Nagasaki. One instructor took his class to a local factory owned and managed by several Japanese. Another traveled with his class to a relevant first-run movie at an off-campus location. Most ambitiously, an instructor took his Global Issues class to Cohoma, Mississippi, to work in a Habitat project.

Several faculty are participating with their students in campus organizations dealing with environmental issues, women's issues and racial relations, Oxfam, and Amnesty International. And six faculty went to a Habitat project in Nogalis, Mexico, where they not only worked but also explored manufacturing conditions and the environment in the export-free zones. These faculty have been invited into classrooms to discuss their experiences in the context of several seminar topics: immigration, economic development, and human rights. The importance of international travel is stressed to students by inviting leaders of Habitat projects to speak in class, as well as the director of the college's international studies program.

Writing Assignments

The aim of the college's extensive writing across the curriculum program is to have students "write to learn." Creating, teaching, and assessing written assignments is a major pedagogical component of the Global Issues Seminar. The shared faculty commitment is to create assignments so that for every class students have a variety of informal writing opportunities to critically engage their own ideas and values and those presented by the text.

Out of class assignments are normally accomplished through the maintenance of a reflective journal or through the daily completion of guided reading exercises. Students are also asked to write informal papers which encourage personal responses to issues concerning films or other audio-visual material they see as well as symposium sessions or lectures they attend. In-class writing is used as a basis for preparing students for watching films or hearing lectures. Often such writing serves as the basis for beginning class discussion, or in synthesizing it. Informal writing takes place on a very frequent basis.

There are several opportunities for formal writing. Since the goal of the course is to increase student awareness of global issues, formal papers often are personal position papers. Where a modest research paper might be required, faculty take their students to the library and teach them appropriate research techniques and writing forms. Letter writing has also been used where instructors have required contacting an organization that represents a student's own interests in global issues.

Assignments are designed to parallel those required in the first-year writing course: introspection leads to analysis which builds to synthesis. The college's philosophy for writing has also been adopted in other significant ways. Faculty are encouraged to give students considerable written comments on their writing, and students are given opportunities to rewrite papers. Consultations with students concerning their writing are also encouraged. Because of the attention to writing, the Global Issues course has facilitated a more unified first-year experience concerning common writing standards, thus giving students a consistent and solid foundation.

Conclusions

At the end of each semester, Global Issues students were given an informal survey asking them to rate, using a Likert Scale, a number of statements. Four of these asserted that students found the course had met the four course goals set by the faculty: that the Seminar address problems of economic development, the environment, social change and culture. Overwhelmingly (over 85% of students at all sites) felt the first three of these goals had been met. On the main campus, the fourth goal was seen to be met by only 75% of students; however, at the correctional institutions, the goal was met to the satisfaction of 100% of the students.

The experiential components of the course, specifically the Underground Railroad" experience and the Global Village simulation, were greeted with high 90's approval ratings. Asked to indicate what they liked most about the course, students liked the simulations. However, several remarks addressed the discussion dimension of the course. Students appreciated the opportunity to speak their minds, to learn multiple points of view, and felt that they were challenged to think for themselves. Although the cultural aspects of the course are being developed presently, this is not a major concern since the senior version of this Global Issues course will further address issues of culture.

Of general relevance to this paper are the transformations in faculty. The first transformation is a renewed and deepened commitment to the mission of the college which stresses peace and justice, conflict resolution, and reconciliation. Many instructors reported how these values were clearly at the heart of their pedagogy and how they have carried over into other courses they teach. Other transformations can perhaps be clustered around faculty development. Faculty learned several new pedagogical methods and through considerable interaction with colleagues learned new content and new disciplinary methodologies. This shared expertise gave faculty an ability to think in new ways and to present material in a more interdisciplinary manner. The values of peace and justice, conflict resolution, and reconciliation have had practical application in faculty interaction. Finally, faculty transformation has facilitated the development of multicultural courses, especially in the correctional institution where each course met strongly-held student needs.

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By Jane Jakoubek

A Low Cost and High Impact Model for Development and Support of New Faculty

This article outlines the needs of new faculty members as they adapt to college teaching and new institutions. A three-part program designed to meet these needs in a cost-effective way is described, including advance readings, general orientation, and a semester-long program of discussions and newsletters.

THE FIRST YEAR! New faculty members begin with high hopes and good intentions, a portfolio of role-models from the past, and great expectations for the future. Few faculty members work as hard to keep up and care as much about their success with students. Yet the path from intentions and role models to effective and accomplished teaching is neither short nor smooth for many faculty (Boice, 1992).

Faculty development programs are important because they assist institutions in maintaining quality and accountability, protect the investment in human resources, and build strong academic communities. While the need for support and development exists throughout the professional career, the first years of teaching are a critical time in ensuring the long-term well-being and productivity of faculty members (Boice, 1992; Gibson, 1992). Graduate programs effectively prepare scholars for research within their disciplines, but the demands of the faculty role are much broader, particularly at undergraduate institutions (Nelson, 1981). Despite the challenges, new faculty members are eager to succeed. Special attention to their needs can enable them to get a good start, make the transition from graduate student to professional, and develop the habits of effective teachers and scholars (Gibson, 1992).

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The Needs of New Faculty Members

Boice (1992) describes the obstacles confronting new faculty members — the need to gain acceptance from senior colleagues by demonstrating both compatibility and competence; the need to experiment with and adopt effective teaching skills; and the need to develop appropriate patterns of research and writing. New faculty express discomfort when they feel like second class citizens, are viewed with suspicion by senior faculty, and are not adequately informed about tenure rules (Wylie, 1986). Concerns about teaching continue well beyond the first term (Bach, 1989). Gibson (1992), writing from the vantage point of a dean, describes similar needs. New faculty members face multiple and conflicting expectations at the same time as they are offered considerable personal autonomy — it is a challenging environment in which to succeed (Boice, 1992).

Needs vary within any cohort of new faculty. Those who have not taught before are concerned about how to teach and evaluate students. Tenure-eligible faculty wonder about the politics of the tenure evaluation. Temporary faculty seek support and affirmation of their contribution. Faculty new to the institution need information about its policies, constituents, and services.

It is a challenge to meet these needs in a manageable and economical way. The new faculty program at Luther College has evolved over time to fit the needs and resources of the institution. Luther College is an undergraduate liberal arts college with 2300 students. The faculty consists of about 200 individuals, of whom about 150 are full-time. The college is located in a rural area some distance from graduate schools; part-time faculty are typically area residents with appropriate credentials for whom the college is their sole employment. An average of 25 new faculty are hired each year, including tenure-track faculty, temporary faculty, and sabbatical replacements. All but a few are American citizens. Faculty teach three courses each semester and a single course during two of three January terms. The program for new faculty at Luther now includes three components: advance readings, a one-day general orientation, and a program of weekly discussions with follow-up newsletters through the fall semester.

Advance Readings

Materials on teaching are loaned to incoming faculty during the summer since a new faculty member pointed out that practical information on teaching would have been most helpful when he was preparing his first courses. Two excellent sources on teaching for new faculty are *The Professor Business* (Flood & Moll, 1990) and *Teaching Tips* (McKeachie, 1986). *Good Start* (Gibson, 1992) is an excellent guide for faculty at liberal arts colleges, although it devotes only one chapter to teaching. The benefit of the advance materials offered by Luther is suggested by the fact that about 20% of the books were purchased rather than returned at the end of the year. Whatever materials are chosen should offer practical assistance on issues of immediate concern to new faculty (Mann, 1989).

Orientation for New Faculty

An orientation session before the academic year begins is a good way to provide basic information about the institution and its history, students, and facilities (Gibson, 1992). At Luther, the morning session includes a common orientation for new faculty and administrators on the college, its constituents, and facilities. Information about benefits, campus services, and policies is provided, along with a campus tour. For faculty, the afternoon is devoted to such things as academic policies, computer and library services, and evaluation procedures. Information on support for teaching, including the New Faculty Teaching Group described below, is provided.

Feedback from faculty indicates that the orientation is both informative and useful, although information overload is a common complaint after a full day of presentations. Well-designed handouts describing how to handle routine tasks such as ordering books or using the phone system are appreciated. Orientations are the most commonly available programs for new faculty (Wylie, 1986), but it is impossible to meet the needs of new faculty in a one-day crash course. To provide for the ongoing support and development of new faculty, the New Faculty Teaching Group was developed.

The New Faculty Teaching Group

Clear goals are fundamental to success for faculty development programs (Siegel, 1980). The New Faculty Teaching Group has operated for the past seven years with only two aims: (1) to provide timely information, primarily on effective teaching but also on other concerns of new faculty, and (2) to provide support and encouragement for new faculty. All faculty members in their first three years of teaching at Luther are invited by letter to participate. Temporary as well as tenure-eligible, part-time as well as full-time, experienced as well as new college teachers are included, because faculty development programs with participation from a wide range of faculty have greater impact than those that do not (Siegel, 1980). At Luther, those invited comprise nearly 30% of the total faculty, making the program a central component of the overall faculty development program.

More than one request to participate has come from faculty members beyond their third year. (One full professor asked whether he could dress up as a junior faculty member and come!) The group remains closed for two reasons. First, senior faculty dominate discussions and focus on concerns which are not necessarily most pressing for new faculty (Mann, 1989). Second, new faculty need a safe environment in order to talk freely about concerns, be frank about problems, and ask questions others may see as stupid. If faculty or administrators who participate in departmental or college-wide evaluations are present, such safety would be lost. Thus, the New Faculty Teaching Group serves only faculty in their first three years at the college, and it is a place for open talk about concerns as well as collective celebration of growth in teaching effectiveness.

The group is organized during the fall semester and has two components: a weekly discussion and a newsletter. Topics are chosen by participants based on their needs and interests. The first session is a round table of concerns and questions foremost in participants' minds. From that list, topics are chosen for the first several meetings; the list is modified as new concerns emerge across the semester. This evolving common agenda is an important aspect of the New Faculty Teaching Group because the goals of faculty development programs planned by experts often diverge from the goals of novices, and faculty display more positive attitudes toward programs they plan themselves (Aber, 1988).

A senior faculty member is invited to serve as a resource on the topic, and a *few* well-chosen remarks are enough to spark an animated discussion. (Some senior faculty members cannot limit their opening comments and thus are not wise choices.) Sessions that overflow with debate, discussion and questions are far more successful than those filled with a didactic presentation by even the most knowledgeable presenter. New faculty members are hungry to talk about teaching, especially *their* teaching, and are frustrated when others talk at them or down to them. Participants cherish the horror stories told by senior faculty members — the lecture that took 15 hours to prepare and only 15 minutes to deliver; such stories affirm that trying and failing are steps toward trying and succeeding. They make senior faculty seem more human and new faculty feel less alone.

The facilitator keeps discussions centered on specific, practical suggestions which is important to assure maximum impact from the time invested by participants (Siegel, 1980). The facilitator also makes time each week for success stories from participants, follow-up reports of earlier concerns, and suggestions for future topics. When new faculty know that sessions will provide sound ideas about their immediate concerns, they will make time in their full schedules to attend.

The teaching group meets for 50 minutes during the class hour with the fewest scheduled conflicts. After some experimentation, we found that participation is highest for sessions late on Thursday afternoon when the week is winding down and good conversation and refreshments offer a welcome break.

A single-sheet newsletter (both sides) is sent to all faculty in their first three years at Luther. It arrives a day or two after the discussion, summarizing important points and practical suggestions from both presenter and participants. Upcoming topics and presenters are listed. The newsletter is also a place for the facilitator to express encouragement and gratitude for the efforts and contributions of new faculty members.

Responsibility for the New Faculty Teaching Group has been successfully handled by both faculty and administrators. Release time is available when a faculty member facilitates the group. The designated individual schedules presenters, moderates discussions, and writes the newsletter. The role sometimes involves informal mentoring when new faculty privately bring concerns and questions. Effective faculty development programs have flexible management, faculty and administrative support, and good communication with the campus (Siegel, 1980), and these are a part of the facilitator's role as well.

While the agenda each fall is created anew, some common concerns predictably emerge, including characteristics of Luther students; motivating students; leading effective discussions; effective lecturing; collaborative teaching techniques; testing and grading; organizing a January term class; advising; making time and finding resources for research; faculty evaluation; institutional politics; and managing time and stress.

Impact of the Teaching Group

When participation is voluntary, attendance is an indicator of program effectiveness. About a quarter of the eligible faculty attend one or more sessions each year; individual sessions have been attended by as few as 5% of those eligible and as many as 30%. Several patterns are evident: most who attend are first-year teachers; faculty are selective about which sessions to attend, choosing topics or presenters they believe will be informative; sessions earlier in the semester are better attended; and a core of regular participants sometimes develops. For this audience then, advance notice of topics is essential, important topics should be scheduled first, and the facilitator must be prepared to support new faculty whether or not they attend.

Program impact can also be assessed by surveying the target audience. An open-ended questionnaire was returned by 50% of faculty who had been eligible for the group during the past six years. The most important factor cited in helping them adapt to their new responsibilities as a faculty member was support from colleagues, listed by 70%. Most had attended some of the New Faculty Teaching Group sessions, following the patterns cited above. Eighty-three percent read the newsletter each week; the remaining respondents read it when they missed sessions. Many respondents added comments on the value of the newsletter, including 15% who said they kept them for later review. The importance attached to the newsletter suggests that it offers two things faculty need from development programs: good organization and follow-up on the outcomes of workshops and sessions (Nelson, 1980).

Over the years, I have learned that one important function of the weekly discussion is to serve as an antennae for issues and concerns facing new faculty. The discussions and ideas that grow from these concerns are shared with other new faculty via the newsletter. The ongoing feedback from weekly discussions sharpens the focus of the newsletter and allows it to maintain a fresh voice because it grows each year from the "here and now" thoughts of people who are new to the institution.

Eighty-one percent of respondents indicated that the group had a positive impact on their adjustment at Luther. Five factors were identified that contributed to the positive impact of the group: (1) specific information that was relevant and practical, especially when it helped faculty feel prepared for upcoming hurdles; (2) the knowledge that assistance was readily available if problems and concerns arose; (3) contact with faculty from other departments; (4) learning that stress experienced during the first years was something everyone faced; and (5) the presence of visible concern and support from the Dean's Office (in years when the program was led by the associate dean). While the majority of respondents felt that the Luther community was supportive in many ways, they repeatedly stated that the New Faculty Teaching Group offered practical advice, support, and encouragement that were not necessarily duplicated elsewhere.

A third way to evaluate a program is through observed changes in participants. From my perspective as facilitator, I can see a shift occurring across the semester. Participants begin by complaining about problems "out there" such as unmotivated and under-prepared students or lack of resources and facilities. Gradually the discussion focuses instead on looking for ways to teach effectively under a particular set of circumstances. Perceptions of the faculty role also change; a teacher is no longer someone who primarily imparts information, but is someone who works with students to help them become independent learners. These changes echo Murray's (1989) findings that a faculty development program which included discussion of material on effective teaching led to increased experimentation of teaching methods and a greater awareness of being part of an academic community. The value of being a part of an academic community is evident when new faculty begin to seek each other out, apart from the teaching group, to discuss their teaching and other professional concerns.

A less obvious benefit of the teaching group and newsletter model is the support and development of temporary faculty who are often overlooked by the rest of the campus. To the student who enrolls in a temporary faculty member's class however, no teacher on campus is more important. Providing support for teaching and the individual's professional well-being is an important investment in the quality of the academic program and the institution as a whole.

What are the benefits of this program over the most common programs for new faculty, mentoring and single-session orientations (Galvez-Hjornevik, 1985; Wylie, 1986)? Compared to mentoring, a larger group is reached with limited organization, staff time, and budget. Group faculty development also encourages concern for the needs of the wider academic community (Nelson, 1981). The newsletter ensures that all new faculty members are receiving practical information about effective teaching and other topics on a regular basis, a factor mentoring programs leave to chance. The model offers a predictable structure and follow-up support through the newsletter which new faculty desire, but which mentoring programs lack (Xu, 1987).

Compared to a single-session orientation, the teaching group and newsletter model allows faculty to have input on topics and to choose their own level of participation which are related to positive attitudes towards faculty development (Aber, 1988). Retention of information is better after several spaced sessions rather than a single, intense learning session (Hovland, 1951). For example, the importance of getting feedback on teaching, which plays a central role in improving teaching (Washton, 1988), can be emphasized in a number of sessions and newsletters. Including faculty for three years increases the time when support and assistance are available and connects faculty from a single year to a wider group. Yet the model is sufficiently cost-effective in terms of time and money to serve this wider group.

Cost of the Teaching Group and Newsletter

Two to three hours is required weekly for the facilitator, and the newsletter production requires one to two hours of clerical assistance. Other costs include the newsletter (we pay about $100 for 60 copies per week over a 14 week term) and refreshments ($50 for an assortment of instant beverages and a box of cookies for each session). Given the scope and impact of the program, the costs are minimal.

Ten Suggestions for a Successful Teaching Group for New Faculty

1. Start small and let enthusiastic participants advertise for you.
2. Choose a facilitator who enjoys teaching, is committed to the support and development of new faculty members, and who can foster an open, safe, and informative setting.
3. Make the weekly discussions accessible and inviting (refreshments help!), but don't require participation and don't tie participation to evaluation.

4. Keep control of topics in the hands of participants. Planning three to four weeks ahead provides advance notice yet allows for flexibility during the semester.

5. Choose interesting, respected senior faculty who can provide concrete suggestions, encourage discussion, and listen to participants rather than deliver a lecture.

6. Keep the discussion and newsletter focused on issues that are relevant for and on the minds of participants. Time is at a premium for them.

7. Make time for and encourage participants to tell about their classroom successes. Include these experiences and suggestions in the newsletter.

8. Encourage participants to use each other as resources, both during and outside of the group.

9. Let participants know that the first years of teaching are demanding. Express appreciation for their gifts and efforts. Offer encouragement. Celebrate successes.

10. Emphasize that learning to teach well is a life-long endeavor requiring ongoing experimentation, creativity, and good will.

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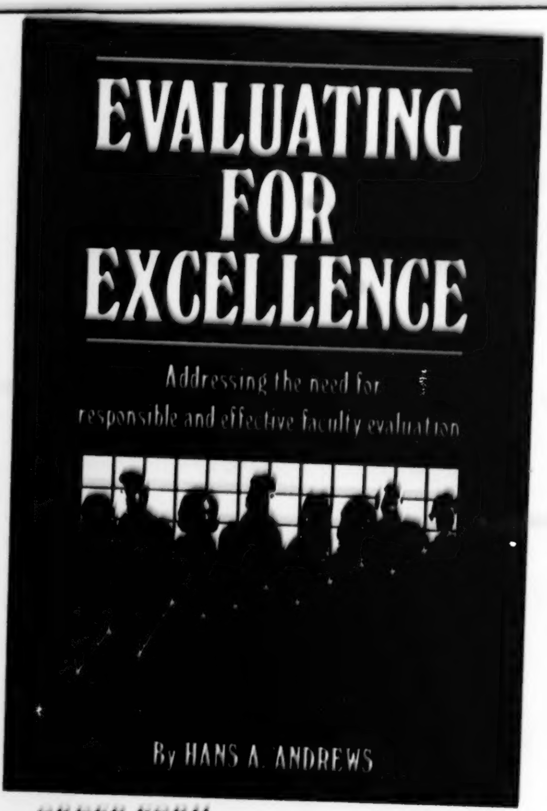
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BOOK REVIEWS

Teaching Portfolios, Guides to Academic Writing & Academic Literacies

The following book reviews involve titles of interest to professional development practitioners.

Teaching Portfolios

***The Teaching Portfolio: A Practical Guide To Improved Performance and Promotion/Tenure Decisions* by Peter Seldin. Bolton, MA: Anker Publishing Company, 1991, xiii + 95 pp. $15.95 paper.**

***Successful Use of Teaching Portfolios* by Peter Seldin and Associates. Bolton, MA: Anker Publishing Company, 1993, xiii + 212 pp. $23.95 paper.**

Reviewed by Carolyn Prager

Ernest Boyer's broadened view of the different ways that faculty can contribute to the creation and advancement of knowledge in *Scholarship Revisited* (1991) coincided with public calls for increased faculty accountability in higher education. The relative dearth of literature about the teaching portfolio, therefore, is surprising, given the emerging emphasis upon teaching as a valid and valuable scholarly activity in its own right. In theory and in practice, the teaching portfolio appears to meet the challenges implicit in calls for better teaching as well as better evaluation instruments that should, in turn, contribute to continued teaching improvement.

Fortunately, Peter Seldin has contributed two valuable works to the literature that discuss and illustrate the teaching portfolio's dual evaluative and developmental potential. In the 1991 monograph *The Teaching Portfolio,* he describes briefly the portfolio's reasons for being before turning to the pragmatic details of portfolio preparation. In this work, he stresses the importance that others play in any one faculty member's efforts, singling out in particular the department chair. Seldin maintains here that the chair's special obligations include meeting periodically with the faculty member to define teaching responsibilities, to clarify related tasks, and to guide portfolio development. In keeping with its subtitle, *The Teaching Portfolio* also provides information and recommendations to others in the use of portfolios for making tenure and personnel decisions. (In passing, to turn the tables somewhat, he also suggests how a faculty member might use a portfolio in seeking a new position).

Seldin commits nearly two-thirds of the text proper to eight sample teaching portfolios from across the disciplines prepared by faculty at Ball State University. To those who seek a "how-to" manual, the recounting of the Ball State University experience with teaching portfolios provides useful insights into those institutional contributions most critical to the portfolio process. These include strong administrative backing, open communication, allowance for individual differences, provision of ample models, continuous evaluation of the portfolio enterprise, and availability to the faculty of a portfolio consultant.

The eight sample portfolios in *The Teaching Portfolio* differ enough in terms of content and format to generate important discussion on individual campuses about issues of format. Taken together, they raise the question of to what extent reviewers within the same institution (and, perhaps, from different schools) should be able to compare portfolios according to some degree of standardization. The subsequent work, *The Successful Use of Teaching Portfolios,* provides 17 other models across the disciplines from six institutions, including one community college. It also includes a chapter describing in detail how nine institutions have gone about implementing portfolios.

In *The Successful Use of Teaching Portfolios,* Linda Annis' chapter on the key role of a collaborative mentor (who may or may not be a faculty development specialist) is essential reading for those who seek to implement the teaching portfolio concept primarily to stimulate and restimulate faculty thinking about teaching and its improvement. *The Successful Use of Teaching Portfolios* dedicates about half of the text to chapters by Seldin and others on conceptual as well as pragmatic aspects of the portfolio with more defined emphasis upon its primary purpose—to improve classroom teaching on an ongoing basis. Lessening the emphasis on the portfolio's evaluative function in favor of its developmental potential allows Seldin and other contributors to explore both value and utility in contexts certain to appear more congenial and constructive to faculty than the earlier work.

Reflecting the collection's greater emphasis upon the portfolio as a major stimulus to improved teaching, the authors of portfolio models replicated in *The Successful Use of Teaching Portfolios* comment more upon performance aspects of actual teaching and discerned effects upon students, on the whole, than do those in Seldin's earlier text. Despite this, representative portfolio samples still rely more upon tangible evidence of teaching effectiveness such as peer and student reviews and syllabus revisions than upon analysis of actual professorial contribution to the often elusive transactions we call teaching and learning. As a result, to a greater or lesser degree, the models cited tend to objectify performance through listing of demonstrable innovations and achievements as viewed by others, often at the expense of deeper personal reflection upon how and why students do or do not learn from the ways in which they are taught.

Within a teaching portfolio, the latter emphasis might call legitimately for three stages of evidence. The first such stage might recount the instructor's investigation of theoretical and practical teaching alternatives, the second describe actual classroom applications, and the third analyze consequent learning outcomes. In the main, the portfolio models presented do a much better job with such first than with second and third stage evidence. For example, portfolio authors who list attendance at workshops and seminars devoted to teaching issues share little with us in terms of what they took away, employed, or otherwise garnered from these sessions.

Those interested in surmounting the testamentary pitfalls inherent in building teaching portfolios on external evidentiary grounds instead of upon personal reflection and analysis of actual performance are encouraged to look also at *The Teaching Portfolio: Capturing the Scholarship in Teaching.* This 1991 AAHE publication stresses portfolio portrayal of and reflection upon the act of teaching through display and documentation of the teacher's individual approach to teaching in specific situations. To a greater degree than in Seldin, the AAHE document also provides sample entries that wrestle with definition of the subtler dimensions of teaching through more complex examination of concrete effects. These reservations aside, however, both Seldin books provide timely and handy information for faculty and academic administrators at all levels interested in introducing teaching portfolios within their institutions.

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Guide to Writing

***Publish, Don't Perish: The Scholar's Guide to Academic Writing and Publishing*, by Joseph Moxley. Westport, CT: Greenwood Publishing, 1992, 198 pp. $35.00; 14.95 paper.**

Reviewed by E.L. Risden

Put Joseph Moxley's *Publish, Don't Perish: The Scholar's Guide to Academic Writing and Publishing* high on your reading list whether you are in faculty development or a new faculty member learning the ropes or an experienced teacher-scholar curious about academe's current wisdom. Unfortunately, this kind of book can never be as specific as one might hope it to be; one always wants to know, where can I publish what *I* write? That question, so discipline specific, could only be answered by individual reference books field by field. Perhaps if the number of journals or publishers in one's specialty is relatively small, an answer may obtrude itself as soon as one conceives a project: the project itself determines its likely or possible organ. My field (English, English literature, early English literature) offers so many journals, and fiercely competitive journals, and often cantankerously conservative journals, that I seldom know where to begin to submit. Or if one does creative writing, for instance, the opportunities are nearly endless, though one may have to struggle over the questions of whether or not to try to acquire an agent and at what level of reputation to aim.

Moxley can't help there, but he accomplishes several other important ends. First, he echoes prevailing thinking in encouraging publication among *all* scholars. Second, he has the evangelical ability to make the reader believe that he or she can really do it. Trust me: even if you haven't written anything in a while, you'll come away from this book wanting to and believing you can. Third, he enumerates a plan that takes the reader from how to begin to record ideas to how to draft and organize projects to how to compose, compile, edit, abstract, and submit articles and books. Equally importantly, Moxley, while encouraging scholars (and encouraging their colleges and universities to support them) to write, emphasizes our need to re-establish the importance of teaching, something many research universities have not recently done with vigor. He notes that neither universities nor society has rewarded teachers for good teaching, and so active scholars have all but retired to the lab and library to crank out the only kind of work that wins lauds: great numbers of intense articles directed at only the most learned audiences. Moxley calls for a "more holistic view of scholarship and teaching," since "effective teaching is grounded in extensive scholarship." He asserts (á la Ernest Boyer and Gerald Gibson) that all thoughtful teachers have scholarship to share, whether it be research oriented, pedagogically oriented, or appropriate for "practical" application in the world at large. And he argues that the academy must find a way to reward teaching.

One difficulty remaining is that "objective assessments of quality [of faculty productivity] are impossible to determine." What makes teaching or scholarship good, and how can we measure them? Some research universities make judgments for promotion and tenure based on how many articles and books one publishes with [major] journals and presses, or more perverse yet, how many times one's well-placed works are cited by other [major] scholars. And can we judge teaching quality based on student evaluations, the only quantitative measure we have, alone? Frankly, I find process of quantification frightening. As I publish my own book on *Beowulf*, I wonder if the world needs another book on *Beowulf*, however valid I think my insights and though it should enhance my status in the profession. And every semester I ask myself whether in my teaching evaluations I do as well as I'd like, as poorly as I fear, if students really *know* how well I teach? Do my colleagues or administrators really *know* how well I teach? Do I know myself? Research problem for someone looking for a project: what alternative ways can we find to evaluate scholarship and teaching? Should we even try to construct ironclad measuring instruments for such effluvial concepts? Moxley doesn't answer all these questions—as if anyone could—but he does give the reader a sense that he or she just may survive the profession and perhaps even flourish.

E.L. Risden is an assistant professor of English at St. Norbert College, De Pere, Wisconsin.

Academic Literacies

***Academic Literacies in Multicultural Higher Education, Selected Essays*, edited by Thomas Hilgers, Marie Wunsch, Virgie Chattergy. University of Hawaii at Manoa: Center for Studies of Multicultural Higher Education, 1992, 189 pp. $7.00.**

Reviewed by Mary Kathryn Harrington

This slim book presents selected conference papers given at the University of Hawaii in April, 1991. The keynote speech of the conference heads the collection, and in it, Robert Underwood quotes Adrienne Rich: "When someone with the authority of a teacher, say, describes the world and you are not in it, there is a moment psychic disequilibrium, as if you looked into a mirror and saw nothing."

Today, higher education, particularly liberal education, is attempting to cope with multicultural "psychic disequilibrium." Debate continues over definitions as well as solutions. This collection provides some insight into the present academic struggle.

The first section, entitled, "Perspectives on Literacy and Academic Culture," attempts to define literacy in today's academy, acknowledging that many of our students have a wealth of cultural literacy rather than academic literacy. Important questions are asked in this early section. Is assimilation the goal? If we succeed, will students lose sight of themselves? How do we negotiate the boundaries between home language and academic conventions? What is education? Shall it be the reading, with discipline, of the "great books" even though we see evidence that a text-based culture may be fading? Are we concerned with the text or are we concerned about the formation of character and self esteem?

The issues of multiculturalism force us to look at our assumptions about culture and reason. Do we believe that reason creates culture? Or does culture create reason? Is it possible of have both liberal education and multiculturalism? As Bruce Maylath asks, "What happens when the lessons taught at school conflict with the lessons taught at home?"

Essayists wonder how we teach our students the very things that higher education signifies. How do we move from story and description to analysis when most multicultural readers are filled with narratives? The sixties haunt us as we fear which politics will enter the classroom. How can the personal/vulgar cannon bump up against that of academe? Carroll believes we should draw these two separate cannons into direct engagement. McEwan answers the fears of those who feel the sting of attacks on the literacy cannon by suggesting that we focus once again on the traditional ways of looking at literature (author, genre, text, morality), for these traditional perspectives can make way or yet another, that of multiculturalism, to the very openness we're after, to the accepting of many new ways of seeing stories and myths.

The second section, entitled, "Multiculturalism in Higher Education: Issues and Research," focuses on issues of cultural relativity, race vs. ethnicity, gender difference in writing and reading, ethnic differences in writing, and team teaching.

This section is the weakest of the three, using rather small research bases as well as sometimes belaboring the obvious. There were two very strong papers in this section. D'Andrea and Daniels' analysis of the structure of racism and the cognitive leaps that individuals make from the first to the third level is well worth reading. In addition, Peterson and Crowe's discussion of error patterns by Pacific Rim students will be very useful for those who teach writing to these students.

The last section, entitled, "Changing Classrooms and Programs," tends to be the most specifically classroom and program-oriented section. Two papers in particular discuss and promote academic rigor in the classroom and dismiss the paternalism tone that often exists in academic discussions about ethnicity. Lisle's analysis of the blandness and safety of multicultural textbooks is provocative; Moloney uses creativity as the topic her students write about in her classroom so they may both cross disciplines and cultural bounds. For those interested in faculty development, Wunsch's paper suggests that faculty is the key to the shift of values and climate in higher education, and she cites specific faculty programs to promote change. A perspective from the administrative side is supplied by Sutton, a student affairs administrator, who recounts with honesty her difficulties in moving to multicultural Hawaii from the midwestern U.S.

This collection has great variety; the essay form lends itself to anecdote, which is the strength of this small book. We in higher education encourage our ethnic students to move from cultures which require inclusion, involvement, and community to academe which has at its core values of independence, autonomy and individuality. Some of these essays ask provocative questions about our definitions, our goals and methods, as well as our intentions.

Unfortunately, the collection is uneven. At times the distinctions between sections seem arbitrary; some essays just don't fit. Particularly in the second part, the writing itself is weak; I noted that seven of the nine essays were collaborations which may be the cause of the unclear voices and badly expressed sentences. There were moments when the obvious was stated and I grew impatient: "good organization is important to learning" or "social environment ought to be taken into account when designing student assignments and making teaching methods relevant."

The range of topics in the collection make it applicable to a wide audience of university and community college administrators and staff, and to the deans and faculty in liberal arts.

Frankly, I wasn't sure of the merit of the collection until I browsed through it the second time, and I copied a few articles for colleagues: two articles for a dean interested in curricular issues, two for the composition director, two for the teaching assistants in English, and another for the tutors in the university writing lab. Out of 25 essays, finding 20% of note tells us its perhaps worth perusing.

Mary Kathryn Harrington Coordinates the Writing Skills Program and teaches writing in the English Department at California Polytechnic State University In San Luis Obispo.

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RESEARCH SERVING TEACHING

Why Do Students Procrastinate?

Most efforts to help students reduce procrastination have focused on improving their time management and study skills, but research reported here suggests additional measures should be taken.

By Lynne Kuhn

Faculty often complain that procrastination is a serious all-too-familiar student problem; less clear is the degree to which students regard procrastination as a problem, and the causes of such behavior. Research by Solomon and Rothblum (1984) provides several insights into this problem; this issue highlights their findings.

Over three hundred students enrolled in two introductory psychology classes at the University of Vermont participated in this study; in one of the sections, students took self-paced quizzes as they completed each chapter of the text.

The Procrastination Assessment Scale—Students (PASS), developed by the authors for use in this study, measures (1) frequency of procrastination (2) the degree to which students feel procrastination is a problem for them, and (3) the extent to which they wanted to decrease their procrastination. PASS also contains a procrastination scenario (i.e., delay in writing a term paper) and a listing of several possible reasons for procrastinating on this task (e.g., evaluation anxiety, perfectionism, difficulty making decisions). Two statements are listed for each reason given; subjects rate each statement according to how well it reflects their reason for procrastinating the last time they were in this situation.

In addition to completing the PASS inventory, students also completed a battery of psychological tests measuring self-esteem, anxiety, punctuality and organized study habits, assertion, depression, and irrational cognitions. Course grades and the number of self-paced quizzes taken during the last five weeks of the semester were also obtained.

Survey findings revealed that 46% of the subjects "always or nearly always" procrastinate when writing a term paper; 28% procrastinate when studying for exams, and 30% procrastinate on weekly reading assignments. Students reported procrastinating less often on administrative tasks, attendance tasks, and other school activities. Based upon these findings, faculty might anticipate that procrastination when working on term papers

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will affect nearly half of one's class. To help students address this problem, term paper assignments might be divided into component parts or stages; individual due dates should be set for each.

In terms of the degree to which students felt procrastination was a personal problem, between 21% and 24% reported that it was "always or nearly always" a problem when writing a term paper, when studying for exams, or when doing weekly readings. Procrastination was viewed as less of a problem with the other tasks measured by PASS. Depending upon the specific task involved, between 55% and 65% of the students wanted to decrease their tendency to procrastinate. It thus appears that a sizeable portion of the students who procrastinate frequently do so by deliberate choice (i.e., they do not view this behavior as a problem); an even larger proportion of these students (35-45%) report not wanting to decrease this type of behavior. The data suggest that class discussion of "why" procrastination is a problem, and "why" completing tasks on schedule is helpful, would address a genuine student need.

Based on findings in the self-paced section of the course, there was a significant positive correlation between the number of quizzes taken in the last five weeks of the term and the self-report procrastination measures. Thus, subjects who report procrastinating frequently also delay taking quizzes. Surprisingly, students' grades were not significant correlated with self-reported procrastination.

If procrastination is primarily a study skills or time management problem as many believe, PASS scores should correlate highly with scores on a study habits inventory but not with other personality traits. Although a positive correlation was found between procrastination and study habits, of equal significance were the correlations with various cognitive and affective measures. A factor analysis of reported reasons for procrastination was performed; the first factor reflected "a fear of failure" (e.g., anxiety about meeting others' expectations, concern about meeting one's own standards, and lacking self-confidence), while the second factor related to "task aversiveness and laziness" (e.g., lacking energy and viewing a task as unpleasant).

The results of this analysis suggest that there are two groups of procrastinators: (1) a relatively small but extremely homogeneous group of students who procrastinate as a result of fear of failure (which correlates not only with student study habits but also with a number of cognitive and affective components), and (2) a large and relatively heterogenous group of students who procrastinate as a result of task aversiveness (which similarly correlates with both study habits and cognitive/affect components). Thus, procrastination is best understood as a complex behavioral, affective, and cognitive phenomenon. Furthermore, students who procrastinate as a result of fear of failure can be distinguished from those who procrastinate because of task aversiveness by the presence of high levels of anxiety and low self-esteem. Contrary to prior expectations, having poor time management skills was not a primary cause of student procrastination.

In the past, most efforts to help students reduce procrastination have focused on improving their time management and study skills (e.g., Richards, 1975). Though this may prove valuable for some, Solomon and Rothblum's (1984) findings suggest that other types of help are also needed. For example, the need for helping students (1) recognize the seriousness of their procrastination problems, (2) overcome "fear of failure" feelings, (3) approach assignments with greater energy and enthusiasm, are all supported by these findings.

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Transforming Teaching: Hearing All the Voices

Providing opportunity for verbalizing assists students in internalizing knowledge and inquiry methods.

By Linda Hilsen

In our classrooms, we model our discipline's thought processes and relate knowledge using our favorite strategies, but underlying these tasks is a relationship dimension, the interpersonal relationship between student and teacher and the relationships among students. How can we prevent inadvertent discrimination in our classrooms to provide a richer, more equal learning environment for all students?

The answer lies in the distribution of power. The authority figure, you are the possessor of power in the classroom, *unless you intentionally* choose to be otherwise. Being a devout believer in the benefits of active learning, I know a learning environment can be consciously designed in which all voices are "heard" on a regular basis. But to do this, you must relinquish some of your power; you must be a teacher, not a teller, by empowering your students. In many instances, the more power you give away, the easier it is for students to learn. Providing opportunity for verbalizing assists students in internalizing knowledge and inquiry methods.

Your classroom demeanor, how you structure activities, your body language speak volumes to students. If you ask a question during a lecture, don't let it become intentionally rhetorical. Wait. Actually count to 5 or 10 and walk about the room, not looking at the students but giving them the freedom to think as your body language tells them you are patiently awaiting a reply. If you can tolerate the silence, you will get an answer. If you nod, show receptivity to the ideas expressed, and do not comment yourself, it is quite likely a student will respond to the first student's statement; a dialogue among students often ensues. Remember these voices can be heard only if you intentionally orchestrate effective communication patterns in your classroom, yours and theirs.

Now in our scenario, who do you think would have volunteered the first response—a male or female? If Catherine G. Krupnick, Director of the Harvard-Danforth Center Video Lab and a Lecturer in Psychology and Social Relations at Harvard,

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were to answer this question, she would quite likely say a male. Krupnick, author of *Women and Men in the Classroom: Inequality and Its Remedies*, which reports on a yearlong study of the communication patterns in 24 different Harvard classrooms, relates that in the predominant classroom circumstance in co-educational, higher education institutions (a male teacher with a majority of male students), males speak two-and-a-half times longer than their female peers (1985, p. 18). A bit of good news is that female instructors seem to inspire female students; the study shows that women speak three times longer in classes led by females. However, the study indicates that in no mix of genders among teachers and students do women students speak as much as men in co-educational settings. Men dominate mixed discussion in and out of the classroom (p. 19).

To make co-education *equal* education, we must be aware of how male and female speech patterns have been culturally acquired which may well be due to power imbalances in society (Parlee, 1989). We need to aid many women students in developing fluency and eliminating verbal hesitancy in the classroom. We must bring to a conscious level—for ourselves and for students—women's and other minority members' tendency to underparticipate in a male-dominated classroom. All students need equal opportunity to express themselves thereby internalizing content and practicing inquiry styles. As instructors, we have the power to facilitate growth, to create opportunities for equal education; hearing all the voices should be a major thrust in our teaching whether we are in the sciences or the humanities.

Krupnick's study isolates four factors which decrease women's access to discourse: "their demographic status as members of a minority in the classroom; their inability or unwillingness to compete against men; their vulnerability to interruption; and the fact that men and women talk in runs, which tends to keep female participation low" (1985, p. 21). (The runs referred to are extensive periods of predominantly male talk followed by short spurts of all-female talk with lots of females' comments overlapping.) The tapes in the Harvard-Danforth study give evidence that women, not male students or authority figures, most often interrupt other female students, not male students or authority figures (p. 20).

So far it appears as if this inequality in educational experience is merely gender related. Myra and David Sadker in *Sexism in the Classroom: From Grade School to Graduate School*, however, say that, yes, males receive more attention throughout the system, but the situation is even worse than we think: "Classrooms [are] characterized by a more general environment of inequity" (1990, p. 10). Simply put, in the classroom teachers treat students as either the "haves" or "have nots." Ten percent of the students in a classroom have the opportunity to be interaction rich, the stars. "Bias in classroom interaction inhibits student achievement" (p. 10). Certainly that is not what we want for the majority of our students. It is time for us to employ the pedagogy available for us to be practitioners of equal education. We must design classroom activities for interaction and equality—so all voices can be heard.

Relinquish a bit of your authority to create an oppression-free learning environment in which the varied voices of all your students—regardless of age, race, gender, national origin, religion, sexual orientation, class, and/or able-bodiedness—can be heard. As Canon points out, "If learning is to take place, it may well be best if privileged groups listen more than talk, and others talk more than usual" (1990, 129). To equitably distribute power, you must use effective teaching strategies. I invite you to try one or two of the following techniques if you are not already employing them:

☐ ***Become consciously aware*** of the communication patterns you are encouraging in your classrooms. To do this you may want to ask a colleague or an instructional development consultant to observe your in-class behavior. Are gender runs present? Are students interrupting one another? Are just a few students dominating the discussion? How long is a given student's response?

To facilitate the recording of communication patterns in your classroom, provide the observer with a sketch of your classroom, with students identified by name if possible. Develop a code to identify the types of interactions (? = student asks question; ?R = student responds to teacher question; SC = student comments on previous statement; SI = student offers additional information, etc.) Number the order of interactions and indicate gender if no seating chart is available.

☐ ***Once you are aware*** of the patterns you are using in your classroom and you want to change them, a useful tool, which was shared by Krupnick at a Harvard workshop (1991), is the tick-tack-toe approach. Merely draw the board on a piece of paper you can keep handy throughout class. As discussion occurs, record the order of the students' responses with a specific reference to gender. As you facilitate your class, alternate gender response proportionate to classroom population. By changing the location of the responses in your classroom, you are more likely to capture and hold students' attention. Equalize participation by calling on students in non-adjacent blocks:

M5	F2	F8
	M3	F6
M1	M7	F4

If you do not know your students by name, from the first day have them preface their responses or remarks by stating their names. Make a mental note of each name; repeat it to yourself; connect the name with the face. Your will be amazed at how much this technique enhances community; not only are you being introduced to your students, but so are the students being introduced to each other. (This technique works in many group settings. Try it when presenting at your next national conference.)

☐ ***The truth of the matter***, however, is you will be a much better facilitator of equal education in your classrooms if you learn your students' names. You can equalize contributions by being able to direct response patterns. "Hey, you've said enough" is not as conducive to learning as, "Jack, we appreciated your input during the last class. Now, Mary, what did you think about Jack's idea...?"

Using name plates propped on the desk can help you and your students learn who everyone is. By helping students become acquainted, you are increasing the chance of extending your learning community beyond the classroom. *The Harvard Assessment Seminar First Report* (1991, p. 21) shows that many students may well learn more outside of the classroom than in it, so help them network. (Caution: Do not become name plate dependent; name plates are just a temporary tool to help you learn.)

Of course, you could use literature teacher Steve Adam's idea of taking Polaroid "family" portraits the first day of class. As the pictures develop, students write their names on their picture and attach their completed, personal information sheets. Steve studies the information sheets and the pictures to enable him to call each of 80 by name in Week One. Helen Rallis, instructional science, astonishes her class on the second day by addressing each student by name. The first day Helen has all students introduce themselves on video, telling something memorable about themselves, where they are from, etc. Before the next class, she replays the tape until she can name each student.

It is much easier to hear all students' voices if you know who the students are and can modulate participation patterns by calling on them. In addition, you can more readily control gender runs. And, you will no longer be dependent upon the students who volunteer. Are you getting superficial responses by calling on those first waving hands? Yes, there are shy students, but all should be ready to comment on assigned reading. If you rely on a few eager volunteers for several class periods in a row, you have allowed a communication pattern to develop which stifles the less eager, potentially more analytical responders. As a classroom facilitator, you must ignite the desire to learn by providing opportunities for all students to vocalize, to own the material you are exploring.

☐ ***As your class progresses***, try a method Charlotte MacLeod, Women's Studies and Medical School, uses. The teacher poses a question or makes a statement for discussion, then calls on a student. Once that student has spoken, she or he calls on the next person to speak. If the teacher wants to reenter the discussion, he or she must be called on by the previous speaker.

An excellent and time-efficient device to get feedback and to hear student voices is K. Patricia Cross's "One Minute Paper." In essence, stop class two or three minutes before the time expires and have students anonymously answer:

1) What is the big point you learned in class today?
2) What is the main unanswered question you leave class with today? (Light, 1990, p. 36)

Professor Fredrick Mosteller, when teaching a basic statistical methods class at Harvard, extended Cross's idea. He decided to briefly summarize the answers to those two questions and distribute them in class the next day (Light, p. 37). His students could hear each other's voices and get a sense of how they were doing in relationship to other students. Plus, they had a record of what they were learning.

☐ ***Exercise design*** is crucial in promoting equitable participation. Incorporating a few of the following suggestions can help broaden your participation base:

- Focus students' thoughts by having them anonymously write for a few minutes on a given topic. Collect and randomly distribute the papers. Hear all the voices by having each student read the paper in hand.
- Have small groups record on newsprint the ideas they have generated. Taping their newsprint sheets to the wall surrounds the class with product—their own.
- Eliminate repetition and save time in small group reports by having groups check off and not restate duplicate ideas.
- Have students share a lesson learned, discuss a point, or reach a conclusion with a neighbor in the classroom. Incorporating such elements into the design of classroom activities enables you to hear a choir of student voices, each singing its own distinctive part.

☐ ***Listen.*** To hear all our students' voices, we must, if we have not already done so, transform our teaching and be practitioners of interactive strategies which promote equal co-education in higher education.

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By Linc. Fisch

Second Thoughts on Time-Worn Clichés

The verbal shorthand of clichés often does us disservice. Good teaching requires the imaginative integration of many particulars, not the application of simplistic formulas.

Like many teachers, I'm an inveterate clipper of articles and collector of materials that I think will be useful some day in some way. Unlike the sensible accumulaters, I just don't seem to have time to develop a system for filing and retrieving these would-be gems.

I've been at this activity so long that the stacks in my study have overflowed into the hallway and partway down the stairs, much to the consternation of my family. Every once in a while I remember an item that I'd like to use, and a prolonged search begins. Whether or not I find what I'm looking for, I usually encounter quite a few things that I had forgotten about, and I pull them out for further consideration. (Because I don't have time to deal with them all, some wind up on yet a *new* stack!)

The other day I was engaged in such a search when I serendipitously rediscovered a thought-provoking article by Bobby Fong, "Commonplaces about Teaching: Second Thoughts" (*Change*, July/August 1987, pp. 28-34). In it, Fong expresses discomfort with six commonplaces that seem to be "verbal shorthand meant to call reflexive agreement."

Consider, for example, *The silent student is an uninvolved learner.* Fong argues that this presumption neglects to examine *why* students might be silent and whether they are *really* uninvolved. Silence may not be a sign of apathy, an inability or unwillingness to participate. Silence can be *active*—the learner may be keeping up with what is said, processing it, and anticipating what is to come. Good listening requires silence. And silence may be culturally related—for example, it may be a sign of respect. Rather than simply calling on silent students to speak, as so many of us do, we might better encourage them to see speaking as another avenue to learning, help them develop skills of discussion, and help them find their own voices. (In this paragraph, I've paraphrased from the article).

Similarly, Fong questions and qualifies five additional commonplaces:

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- *Grades are a necessary evil.*
- *Discussion is preferable to lecture.*
- *Teachers are fellow-learners with their students.*
- *Students need to acquire skills, not memorize information.*
- *Instruction must be geared to student backgrounds and aspirations.*

Fong argues that it is difficult for any maxim to encompass teaching in all its diversity. "Teachers must moderate the dictates of laudable but divergent general principles in pursuit of an imaginative integration involving a thousand particulars of culture, student, and instructor. Teaching is thus idiosyncratic, resistant to generalization." His second thoughts are to be considered seriously, and I commend the article to all teachers.

Well, the Fong article turned my mind to some of the clichés which commonly arise in teaching and to which we often give reflexive agreement. It seems to me that they, too, should be given second thoughts, questioned and qualified as Fong does his commonplaces.

We've all heard this one: *If it ain't broke, don't fix it.* The intended message seems to be, If something seems to be running smoothly, tinkering with it may bollix it up. But often there is a hidden message: Let things alone; there are no complaints; don't change. When we stop to think of it, there is often good reason to discover potential breakdowns and preclude their occurring, rather than making repairs only after malfunction, with attendant loss of service or injury to person. (Consider, for example, aircraft preventive maintenance programs.)

In teaching, no course is without the potential for improvement. By continually making small changes for the better ("tinkering"), that improvement is gradual and constant. It avoids the stagnancy that can taint repeated runs of a course. Too, by monitoring the consequences and outcomes of teaching efforts—and adjusting appropriately—dysfunction might be precluded.

Don't reinvent the wheel presumes to prevent wasting energy on something that has already been done. But none of us or our students were present when the wheel or other significant innovations were invented, and we've been denied the joys of such discovery, not to mention the instructive benefit of the process. So perhaps some "wheels" might well be "reinvented" continually.

Furthermore, there are many kinds of wheels, and repeating the process of responding to a need may produce a wheel (or perhaps even an entirely new product) that is more functional. I think of this particularly with regard to courses that we've taught before. We could simply (and "efficiently") repeat the process and plan that we've done previously, but better results are likely to result if we start anew and rethink how to accomplish our goals more effectively.

No pain, no gain fails my test of worthiness for several reasons. Though gain *can* result from painful situations, many benefits accrue to people without pain. One person's "pain" may be another's "exhilaration." Difficulty in surmounting obstacles and meeting challenges is not synonymous with pain.

The teacher who succumbs to this out-worn cliché mistakenly thinks that pain must be inflicted on students for learning to occur and deliberately concocts painful experiences. That's far, far from what we should be doing in teaching.

Start out tough; you can always ease up later (known in some circles as "Don't smile 'til Christmas") presumes that it's easier to go from toughness to sweetness than vice versa. Even if that might be true, why is being "tough" important at all? One can hold high expectations for students without being "tough." One can still demand excellence from them without being unpleasant.

Furthermore, whatever mode a teacher establishes at the beginning of a course is likely to prevail thereafter. Attempts to change may not only be difficult but may also send confusing signals to students. Better to start in the appropriate mode and maintain as much consistency as possible. And don't confuse consistency with rigidity; retain some flexibility to make changes in-course.

We may not think of this next phrase as a cliché, but we resort to it so commonly (I myself have done so twice already in this article) that it certainly should qualify: *I Just don't have time for [whatever].* True, most of us have more on our plate than we can consume. But when we cover inaction or failure to accept an assignment by defaulting to the time excuse, we often are being simply evasive. We all have had the experience of having something arise suddenly and unexpectedly to which we respond immediately. When we say that we don't have time for something, we often mean that we choose to not assign it high priority, given other things that are competing for our attention. Why not be entirely honest and speak in terms of priority instead of time?

Two American pop philosophers are responsible for my final outworn cliché. Julius Marx is credited with *It's not over until the fat lady sings*, and Lawrence Peter Berra is reported to have coined the alternate form: *It's not over until it's over.* (Yogi, however, is big on denial: "I never said a lot of the things I said.") We could support extinguishing Groucho's version quite quickly because of its sexism and weightism. But the essence of both phrases is still: There's *always* hope (for success, winning, passing the course, whatever) even until the bitter end.

As one who sometimes closes letters with "Esperance," I recognize that situations have a greater possibility for a desirable outcome than we may realize, and success may result from hard work and persistence. So one should be cautious about premature resignation to less than we wish for.

But there are *some* situations in which maintaining hope against high odds is both unrealistic and undesirable. Better to cut our losses, salvage what we can, and redirect our energies to those things that have more reasonable possibilities for accomplishment. For example, a student might sometimes be better off to admit defeat in one course in order to concentrate on others which hold greater hope, rather than risk sinking in all courses. In a different setting, there are occasions in meetings when further debate serves little purpose if the outcome of an issue is clearly inevitable.

I hope this article by now has caused you to think of other clichés employed in teaching that have questionable value. I'm sure there are many to be relegated to the trash can of academe. Such phrases are born with elements of truth. They grow through some basic utility. They become popular through repetition. Some become cutesy and end up on posters listing the endless variations of Murphy's Law. Then they become entrenched catchphrases and verbal shorthand that appeal to our reflexes. And some do us great disservice.

Teaching is complex and requires much more than simplistic formulas. We must question the outworn clichés and, as Bobby Fong says, pursue an imaginative integration of the thousand (or more) particulars that affect our teaching. That pursuit *will* serve us well.

Linc. Fisch, an educational writer and workshop leader, lives in Lexington, Kentucky, along with his uncatalogued accumulation from some 30 years in higher education.

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